

# Childhood Education

For the Advancement of Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education

DOROTHY E. WILLY, Editor

FRANCES McCLELLAND, Associate Editor

Volume XII

Number 4

## Next Month—

■ Mary E. Leeper, executive secretary of the Association for Childhood Education, will describe what other countries are doing in childhood education as reported at the conferences in Geneva and Oxford.

■ "What About the Modern Dance?" by Elizabeth Waterman, director of physical education at the University of Wisconsin.

■ Eloise Ramsey will contribute her second article, "Verse-speaking Choirs for Young Children," to the series, "Old Values and New Trends in Children's Literature."

■ "Departures in Kindergarten Decoration and Design" by Nicholas Moseley, superintendent of schools, Meriden, Connecticut.

■ "Character Development Goals for Preschool Children" by Shirley Newsom and Lee Vincent of the Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit, Michigan.

## Contents for January, 1936

	PAGE
EDITORIAL COMMENT	147
INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND LANGUAGE LEARNING OBJECTIVES	
<i>Donald D. Durrell</i>	149
FREE SPEECH FOR CHILDREN	
<i>Ethel Mabie</i>	152
IMPLICATIONS OF LANGUAGE IN BEGINNING READING	
<i>Olga Adams</i>	158
ELIMINATING THE NEED FOR SOME TYPES OF REMEDIAL WORK IN READING	
<i>Agnes L. Adams</i>	163
ACQUIRING GOOD SPEECH HABITS IN EARLY CHILDHOOD	
<i>Elizabeth D. McDowell</i>	168
SUMMARIES OF CURRENT PRACTICES IN THE TEACHING OF HANDWRITING, PHONICS, AND SPELLING	
<i>Frank N. Freeman, William S. Gray, Frederick S. Breed</i>	173
LANGUAGE ARTISTS IN THE PRIMARY GRADES	
<i>Hughes Mearns</i>	178
NEWS FROM HEADQUARTERS	
<i>Mary E. Leeper</i>	182
BOOK REVIEWS	
<i>Alice Temple</i>	183
AMONG THE MAGAZINES	
<i>Ella Ruth Boyce</i>	186
RESEARCH ABSTRACTS	
<i>Beth L. Wellman</i>	188

Published Monthly, October to June, by the  
ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

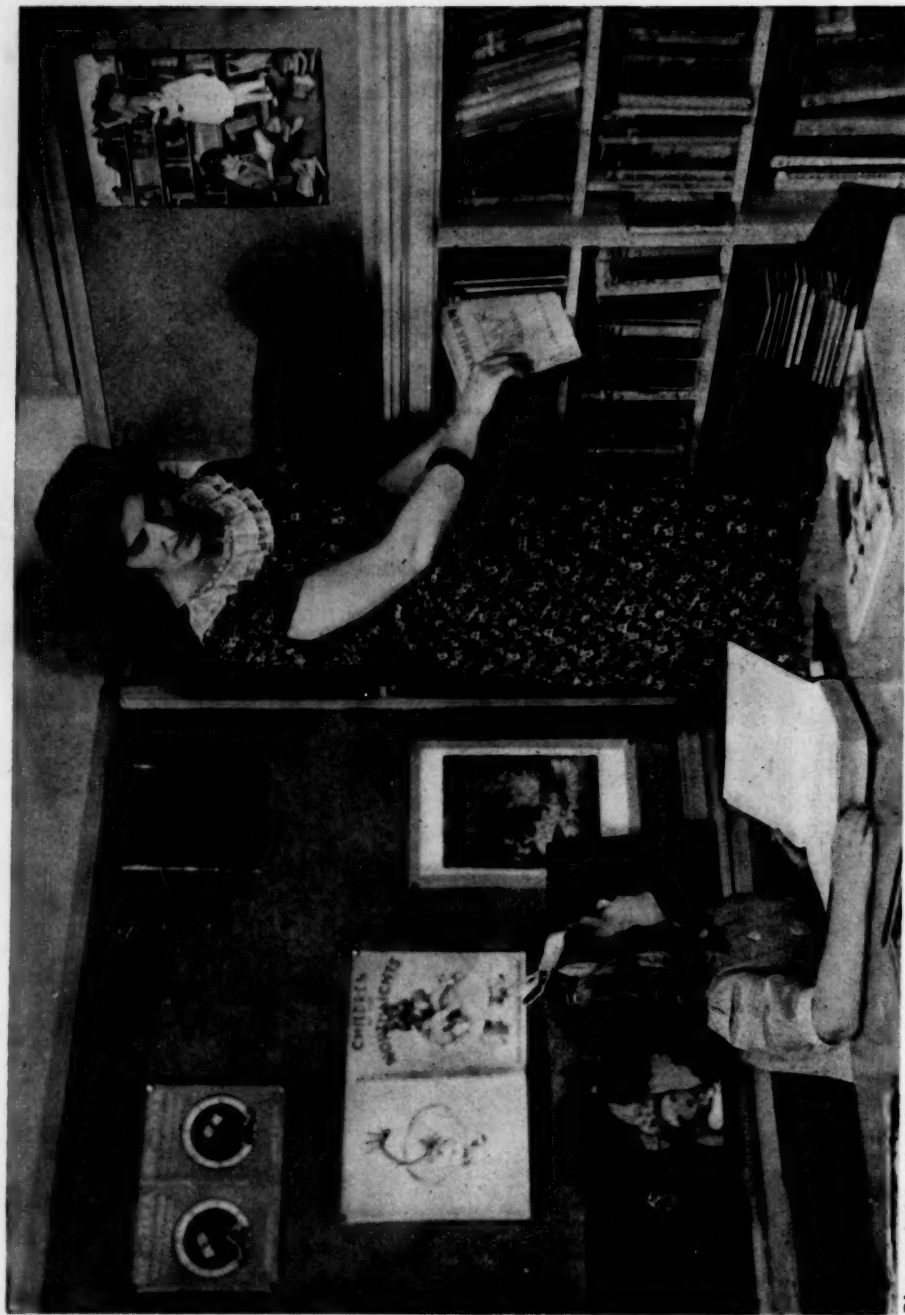
With the Cooperation of the National Association for Nursery Education

1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington, D.C.

Subscription price \$2.50. A.C.E. membership and subscription \$3.00. Foreign postage 50 cents. Single copies 30 cents. Entered as second class matter at the post office at Washington, D.C. under the act of March 3, 1879. Additional entry at Menasha, Wisconsin. Copyright, 1936, Association for Childhood Education.

## REPRINTS

Orders for reprints from this issue must be received by the George Banta Publishing Company, Menasha, Wisconsin, by the 10th of the month of issue. Carefully indicate quantity, shipping instructions, etc.



*Photographed by Edward P. Goodell*

### *In the Primary Library*

First-grade child: "Is 'Twinkle, Twinkle Little Star' in this book?"

Teacher: "No, it isn't. Why do you especially want 'Twinkle, Twinkle Little Star?'"

First-grade child: "I was just thinking; my mother used to say that to me when I was a little girl and I want to see what it looks like."

*Germanstown Friends School, Philadelphia*

# Editorial Comment

## Sharing the Responsibility for Language Learnings

AS PERSONS responsible for the learning of children in school we are dependent to a great extent upon parents and our own contacts with children outside school for determining how much they have learned. It is the child's unconstrained behavior which is important to observe, especially in determining outcomes in language learnings. How much and what does the child read on his own initiative outside school? How naturally, clearly, correctly, with courtesy and appropriateness does he express himself?

Following a conversation with a mother I asked her to put in writing what she spontaneously had told me regarding her observation of language habits of older children. This is what she wrote:

"As a mother of adolescent children and as the hostess during the summer in our New Hampshire cottage to large numbers of young people I have had considerable opportunity to observe happy, healthy, well-educated, modern boys and girls at times of relaxation and play, in moments of conversation with them alone, and in groups around the open fire on camping trips. I began to notice how inarticulate are many of these boys and girls in their teens, not only in vocal expression but in written expression—in 'bread-and-butter' letters. I have had many such letters, short, long, and medium. These letters never rise or fall in my estimation because of brevity or length. Although it is often evident that they have enjoyed themselves while with us, their choice of words in most cases is so limited and so commonplace that they do not convey their real feelings or thoughts. A few young people stand out from the group as ones who know the fine shades of meanings in words, who are articulate in expressing their thoughts, who have been discriminating both in sorting their impressions and in making their words tell the story. I have kept some of these charming, often very brief, expressions and in many cases believe that these young people who have learned the value of a fine choice of words will grow into more interesting, successful, and discriminating men and women than those who cannot so express themselves.

"After much thought on this subject and many talks about it with the boys and girls themselves, there seem to be basic reasons for these limited and commonplace vocabularies and the lack of articulate expression. While young they did not have sufficient or varied enough reading;

they did not take part in really interesting conversation or even listen to good conversation of grown-ups; they had no natural pride in a large and varied vocabulary. Entirely too little poetry had been shared with them while they were young and susceptible. In the haste of this modern life most of them have had no quiet place in which to read, no time set apart for reading. They have developed neither pride nor joy in expressing their thoughts in writing."

IN GIVING me her own ideas for better outcomes in language learnings this mother stressed the responsibility of the home as well as that of the school. Surely it is a joint responsibility demanding close cooperation between the two, especially necessary since the home is a stronger influence than the school. Then there are other influences—the radio, the movies, the desire at certain age levels to be "tough," and the idea sometimes that using beautiful language is "sissy"—which have to be dealt with.

Recognition in the school of the importance of language learnings has not only brought about closer home and school cooperation but has led the school to be more thoughtful of its language program and more careful in determining whether the child is acquiring language for use and enjoyment in everyday living. This responsibility has resulted in a breaking away from the scheduled language period with its textbook assignment to a plan of curriculum which stimulates thinking; gives language work new life and vigor through incentives to talk, read, and write, and which brings to a high standard of excellence the language used in all classes. We do well to keep in mind the importance of having children develop the four powers ex-President Eliot of Harvard has pointed out: to observe accurately, to register impressions correctly and clearly, to draw correct inferences from this raw material, and to express these inferences or thoughts in clear, forceful language.

THERE are many educators who might share with us their ideas and fine work in language learnings. The contributors to this issue are some of these persons who are certain to enlighten and to inspire us.

—MARJORIE HARDY



# Individual Differences and Language Learning Objectives

DONALD D. DURRELL

THE ART of bringing up children seems to resolve itself into two simple rules: encourage those habits which appear to be valuable to the child in the future and discourage those which promise to handicap him. The difficulty comes in knowing just which habits are valuable and how to do the encouraging and discouraging.

In language learnings, the habits to consider are those which deal with the intake and output of words and ideas. This may seem a rather simple task but on examination it takes on a complexity as great as any problem that confronts the teacher. On the intake—or comprehension—side we have the understanding of the meanings of words, sentences, and larger units of spoken language, while in written language these skills are complicated by the techniques involved in the mechanics of reading. On the output—or expression—side we find all of the difficulties involved in oral and written composition. To teach these skills requires the greatest ingenuity but that task is simple compared to the one of teaching the art of self-direction in their use.

Initiative and self-direction should be the final objectives in language teaching. To judge by standard tests or the types of examinations in common use, it would appear that teaching has been well done when the knowledge and skills outlined in the course of study have been acquired by the child. However, knowledge and skills are not power—the adage to the contrary. Power consists in the habits of using the right knowledge and skills at the right time and place. The skills of oral and written composition are of little value unless one learns

*"Initiative and self-direction should be the final objectives in language teaching," says Dr. Durrell, professor of education, Boston University. He points out other objectives as well and suggests some desirable habits to establish in relation to these objectives.*

to observe opportunities for their use in situations outside of school and finds delight in using them. The out-of-school reading of many people is merely a means of "killing time" rather than the powerful agency for assisting in vocational and avocational activities and for control and direction of the emotions that it might be. If intelligent self-direction in the use of skills has not been acquired by the child, the learning is likely to be relatively useless.

A minor objective in language learnings is making automatic certain of the fundamental skills and habits that are commonly accepted as being desirable. The peculiar thing about these skills is that they are of little value until they become automatic. If they are not relatively automatic, they often serve to impede the performance of the major objectives. In conversation habits, the factors of voice, enunciation, pronunciation, structure of sentences, inflections, rate of speech, and the variety of habits relating to courtesy in conversation must be relatively secure if the child is to pursue his purpose with pleasure. In the same way, if the thoughts going into the letter or composition are to be directed toward the goal of affecting the reader in the desired manner, the skills of handwriting, spelling, punctuation, sentence structure, as well as habits relating to order and organization must be auto-

matic. It is well known that pleasure and purpose in reading are too often defeated by faulty mechanics of oral and silent reading.

The important fact to remember in relating the major objectives of initiative and self-direction and the minor objective of establishing certain skills is that the major objectives must always take precedence over the minor. Purpose must always precede the teaching of the skills. If the teaching precedes the purpose, there is little likelihood that the child will think of the skill except as a meaningless drudgery to be escaped whenever possible.

William James in his *Talks to Teachers* says, "All of our life, so far as it has definite form, is but a mass of habits—practical, emotional, and intellectual—systematically organized for our weal or woe, and bearing us irresistibly toward our destiny, whatever the latter may be." This being the case, particularly with language learnings, it is well to consider some of the problems of establishing desirable habits in relation to our objectives. Perhaps the most important principle to understand is that habits are relatively specific. This means that a habit is ordinarily allied only to the situations and conditions—external and internal—with which it was connected when it was established. It might be well to suggest a number of applications of this principle to the attainment of our objectives in language arts. The following suggestions are illustrative rather than exhaustive and systematic.

The habit of initiating activity in language skills can be acquired only by teaching the child to discover for himself the use of the skills as he learns them. If the child's reading, writing, and speech activities are always initiated by the teacher or by other members of the group, the child is not likely to acquire the art of finding his own uses for the skills.

Self-direction, too, may come only through teaching the child to plan for himself. If all plans are made by the teacher and the exact content of all assignments are outlined for the child, he never discovers the pleasure of di-

recting his own intellectual tasks. In this connection, the practice of dipping shallowly into a variety of subjects in order to complete the course of study tends to defeat the ends of self-direction. The everlasting pressure to move on through the year's work means that there is never time in the child's intellectual life for him to pursue his own interests, even if he had them. We need a new standard of thoroughness in education, one that insists that learning is not thorough until the child incorporates it into his habits of observation, thinking, and expression.

The out-of-school use of the language arts depends upon a close relationship of school situations to the child's interests and life outside of school. It is necessary either to build the work of the classroom on the out-of-school interests, or to open the child's eyes to the out-of-school applications of the classroom work. No set course of study can be entirely adequate for the language arts since the interests of children vary widely in different communities, at different times of the year, and even change from year to year. The alternative plan to that of following the child's out-of-school interests is the one of building many associations of use around the work of the classroom so that the child will be observing constantly many opportunities to use the skills.

The child's world is one of action, and he is not likely to use skills that cannot be incorporated readily into his activity. Language skills that surround making, building, collecting, or playing are likely to be used. Those which may be used in the intellectual activities of planning, inquiring, imagining, and problem-solving also have a greater chance of survival. The child's world is primarily a contact world, bound closely in time and place to the things which he can see and hear. It appears that various phases of natural science might make better material for basic curricula of the elementary school than the social studies that now have the ascendancy, since the applications of natural science provide more opportunity for normal sensory, motor, and intellectual experience.

The child is also a creature of emotion. Activities which satisfy his emotional needs are also likely to continue. While present-day psychology has discarded much of the "instinctive" theory of behavior, it is generally agreed that there are many interests and tendencies common to children. Some of these

which may serve as a basis for planning lessons in the language arts are sympathy, imitation, creativeness, desire for approval, and joy in achievement.

Probably the greatest contribution of modern psychology to education is the recognition and measurement of individual differences. With an increased emphasis on the mental hygiene needs of the child and improved techniques for the analysis of difficulties in learning has come more careful educational guidance of children. Although there is still the tendency to consider progress in school subjects more important than the child's mental welfare, there is much evidence of a change in the point of view of educational practices.

The most fundamental difference among school children as far as education is concerned is the difference in rate of learning of pupils. The rate of learning is not always determined by tests of intelligence, since there are many other factors which affect it. Some of these are differences in response to the motivation, confusions and faulty habits in learning, sensory differences, and emotional or physical conditions which make attention difficult. Provision for individual differences in the rate of learning is highly important. That school practices are not yet adapted to differences in learning rate is all too evident from the numbers of children who need remedial instruction in reading, spelling, and writing. If the rate of learning is adjusted to the child, there is no need for remedial work and no such thing as failure.

Differences in the backgrounds of children in the elements that make for success in the language arts also deserve the attention of the teacher. One of the more recent tests of reading readiness takes stock of the child's background in visual, auditory, motor, speech, vocabulary, and language skills. Children enter school with various sorts of

emotional and social habits which affect their success in school work. Out-of-school interests and activity outlets differ greatly, even in the same community. The skilled teacher is aware of these differences and adjusts her work to care for them.

Sex differences have generally been disregarded in planning instructional materials for children in the primary grades, yet every study of comparative achievement shows that boys and girls differ in many important respects. In reading achievement girls excel boys even as early as the third month in the first grade. Sex differences are most clearly revealed by inquiry as to the number of boys compared to the number of girls who "play school" at home. The school is rarely entrancing enough to make the boy desire to duplicate the experience. It is difficult to interest an active boy in the plight of "the wee duck who couldn't learn to swim." Studies of the speaking vocabularies of six-year-old children show that children of this age are often more mature than some writers of children's books realize. We need to know more about the interests and abilities of children if we are to avoid making the mistake of having our classrooms too immature.

We may expect many developments in materials and methods of instruction designed to assist in taking care of differences among children. Some of these will be the following: enriched and individualized assignments in the content subjects, better analyses of difficulties and measures of progress through inventory checks, extensive practice material on every learning level, remedial exercises designed to correct specific faults and confusions, self-administering exercises for individual progress in the tool skills, and various types of classroom organization for taking care of small groups of children who have similar needs.



# Free Speech for Children

ETHEL MABIE

THERE is a tradition in our country that not to have freedom of speech is intolerable. The free expression of ideas is associated with happiness, even in the Constitution. As teachers of language, we may well examine the effect of the school upon the child's desire and ability to exchange ideas with other people and to secure the satisfaction that comes from such communication.

By *free speech* we do not mean the unrestrained expression of anything the child may wish to say. We have been justly critical of the old school in which the child talked only when called upon. However, a modern school, if it permits the child to talk as and when he likes, may be developing just as many undesirable interferences with free speech. A few children may monopolize, thus denying free speech to others. Poor habits of listening may nullify the communication of ideas because each child is so eager to talk that he does not listen to others. If no requirements are made for consideration of other people, antagonisms and other emotional responses often prevent either the clear, pleasant expression of ideas or the open-minded reception that are elements in free speech.

*Real freedom of speech is present when the child has ideas to express; a social situation which makes him want to talk and permits him to be comfortable as he talks; listeners to understand, appreciate, and respond; and the ability to make his meaning clear. We shall elaborate on each of these.*

## IDEAS TO EXPRESS

What can we do to give children ideas to express? We are much concerned these days with meaningful reading because we know that, unfortunately, children sometimes

*Miss Mabie, supervisor of curriculum in the Madison, Wisconsin, public schools, defines free speech and discusses four factors she believes are necessary before the young child can experience real freedom of speech.*

learn to pronounce words which mean nothing at all to them. So, too, in language we have been busy removing superfluous *and's* and correcting *he seen* and *they wasn't* in meaningless sentences. If we demand expression we have a responsibility also for stimulating ideas.

Children get their interests and ideas from the people, objects, and happenings about them, although we teachers frequently behave as though we expected such stimulation to come from within the child. The richer his surroundings, the more ideas a child will have. If we had a group of children in an empty room for conversation, we would find the talk more limited and lifeless than the conversation that would take place if the same group were in a museum. Home experiences, books, hobbies, and travel give some children sufficient background, but for the majority of pupils the school must assume responsibility for enriching surroundings and building concepts for use in language as well as in reading.

Kindergarten and primary teachers are rather generally committed to the valuable practice of taking their classes on trips to the dairy, the greenhouse, the hospital, the grocery store, the park, the zoo, the farm, the fire station, and the post office. Less often, perhaps, they have gone to the filling station, the shoe store, a neighborhood garden, or the green market. There are many opportunities for the use of language



in such excursions. Greeting the guide who conducts them on the tour, asking questions clearly, expressing appreciation without prompting are all real, social uses of language. The less stilted and prescribed such expressions are the more they are appreciated by the guide and the more valuable they are to the child. The author recalls with distinct pleasure the spontaneous remark of a child in a class where a demonstration lesson had just been taught. As the visiting teacher was leaving, one little fellow said, "Well, when you're down this way again, drop in." The spirit which prompted that kindly invitation was real, and the visitor appreciated it infinitely more than the many formal "thank you's" she had received in the rooms where the children waited for the teacher's request that they express appreciation which they probably did not feel.

After any of these trips conversation never lags. Even though, as some critics claim, much wrong information and many confused understandings come from such trips, the very language discussion in which the erroneous ideas are revealed and corrected is in itself a natural and vital thing. Too few adults know how to differ with someone courteously. Children should be encouraged to check the accuracy of their observations and their opinions in courteous discussion.

Some studies of children's interests reveal that natural science interests are greater than any other. One investigation<sup>1</sup> reveals that in primary grades the animal interest is greatest, while in the intermediate grades natural phenomena, stars, sun, weather, tides, and moon are centers of interest. Watch the children before school in a room where there is a collection of caterpillars in jars, or where there is an aquarium. Even the most attractive books on the library table cannot compete with their appeal. Bulbs and plants may be grown in the classroom. One primary teacher secured from an experimental farm a glassed and screened hive of bees that car-

ried on their labor in the schoolroom to the great delight of the children. There was no lack of ideas for expression in that room.

Pictures, stories, and books are also starters of ideas. They build vocabulary, as well. One little boy enjoyed the story *Poogie and Sibella* in which Sibella, the cat, "walked along thinking important thoughts." Later he remarked to his aunt, who seemed to him to be unusually quiet, "You must be thinking important thoughts like Sibella." Some of the everyday experience stories and poems which are found in recent readers are very provocative to children. Rose Fyleman's story, "The Taxi That Went Mad," and the poem by Dorothy Aldis, "Radiator Lions," are both examples. Any number of interesting experiences are drawn out by the reading of such stories and poems.

At least part of the bulletin board should be changed every day so that children will look at it eagerly and find new ideas there every morning. The comments which children make as they come into the room in the morning may be unobtrusively written down on cards by the teacher and posted in a news corner. Such items as, "Burton has offered to bring his new book to school for us to read. Someone else may bring a book tomorrow. Would you like to be the one?" may be answered by the children.

The imaginative, creative child responds to still other stimulations. Finger painting, even more than the usual easel painting, seems to loosen ideas and start language expression. Often the little stories which children tell, as they work out their paintings, are as rhythmical as the motions of their hands. The following rhythmical expressions were the result of encouraging language expression during and after finger-painting:<sup>2</sup>

This is a picture of where the brownies come out to dance. They run and jump on the little toadstools. You can't see the brownies 'cause they go so softly, so fast in the nice warm night.

Doris—4½ years old

<sup>1</sup> Made by Miss Dorothy Greenleaf, Randall School, Madison, Wisconsin.

<sup>2</sup> Teacher—Miss Margaret Whelan, Shorewood Hills School, Madison, Wisconsin.

Thank you grass  
 Thank you bushes  
 Thank you trees  
 To grow  
 To die  
 To get green  
 For next summer.

Peter—4½ years old

(Each of the objects named was patted with the palm of Peter's hand as he chanted the above.)

Miss Elizabeth Waterman, formerly of the staff of the University of Wisconsin, has secured in both music and art some unique transfer from her work in rhythms. Following her procedures, one original kindergarten teacher used the tom-tom and the sound of other rhythm instruments to suggest word pictures, which grew eventually into little verses. Some of the word pictures suggested were "goblins marching," "steamboat chugging," "waves pounding splash, splash, splash," "acorns falling," and the more usual horn, clock, and drum.

Starting the ideas by a variety of objects and experiences is the first problem in giving children *free speech*. Remembering that there are great differences in the backgrounds of the children and also variations in the amount of stimulation necessary for children of different personalities, teachers should accept the challenge and experiment with numerous ways of meeting it.

#### THE DESIRE TO TALK OR WRITE

Many conditions in the schoolroom unavoidably place constraints on the child's freedom of speech. The inhibiting influence often begins the day the child enters kindergarten. He emerges suddenly, usually from a small home with its familiar surroundings, into a large classroom, in a still larger building, with a maze of halls, doors, strange equipment, and furnishings. (We adults can approximate the child's confusion by recalling our first experience in a large city railroad station or on an ocean liner.) The

presence of twenty or thirty strange children and of another stranger in the person of the kindergarten teacher subdues even the most expressive child. In the succeeding grades the emphasis on precision and correctness of speech often makes the child from a background of crude, meager conversation retire into silence in defense.

Moreover, children of kindergarten age are not particularly social in their use of language. The presence of other people may provoke expression without the speaker's being concerned that his remarks be answered, or even heard. The realization that language is communication of ideas comes gradually, usually during the first year of school.

It is not natural for children to sit down to converse as adults do. Children talk as they play or work together. Conversation may be prompted by the teacher's suggestion. The teacher is wise who engages only a small group at a time in such discussion—perhaps after a trip or some other experience has been shared. The larger the group, the more severe is the constraint because many personalities are frightening to shy children and because the need to wait for many others to speak keeps the child from participating freely. Generally, it is best in such conversation not to require that hands be raised or that children stand. If the chairs are drawn into a circle, listening is easier and interruptions can be avoided. The teacher, without requiring a formal taking of turns, keeps the opportunities to talk distributed in the group by questions and comments. She guides the subjects of conversation in the same way. The most suitable topics for these brief conversations are the home and play experiences of the children.

After a kindergarten work period, just before materials are put away, some teachers take the children on a tour of the room to see what has been built, modeled, and painted by different pupils. They learn thus

to express commendation of what others do. Often some child wants to explain what he has been doing or what he plans to do. Because of his interest and his knowledge he usually talks well on these occasions.

Conversation comes freely when children cooperate on some activity, construction, or gardening, for example. Much interesting and natural expression comes from undirected dramatic play. For that reason, the house, store, or post office which is constructed in the room should be large enough to permit the spontaneous imitation of adult activities which children enjoy so much.

Conscientious teachers by handling contacts for their pupils rob them of valuable experiences of having personal contacts which make vivid the social value and certain requirements of the language used for various purposes. Two or three pupils in the second grade may make up a committee to ask the principal for permission to have a party. Five or six third-graders may be asked to compose the rough draft of a letter inviting some parent to give their class a travel talk. Another committee may make telephone arrangements to visit a home to see a garden or some pets. Such opportunities for using language in real situations requiring contact with strangers should be distributed generally so that each pupil, at some time, has the responsibility for handling an interview, using the telephone, helping with a group letter, or carrying out some similar project for the class.

Practices in the form of dramatizations should precede many of these social experiences in the use of language. Through such practices, courtesies of approaching strangers, of asking favors, or of expressing appreciation can be taught. Children lose their self-consciousness by "playing" the interview or the telephone conversation. This is the teacher's opportunity for giving helpful suggestions on suitability of language for the purpose—brevity for business conversations, definiteness in making plans, tact in

asking favors. The teacher may very well participate in these dramatizations by taking the part of the adult. Many embarrassing experiences can thus be avoided for children who are sent on such missions. The knowledge that he knows what to do and say, when he finds himself in these social situations, will give the child *free speech*.

#### LISTENERS

If the language power we are concerned to develop is the power to communicate ideas, there can be no *free speech* without a receptive audience. In our classrooms we have too frequently treated expression as an activity in which a single individual, the speaker, is engaged. We have concentrated the attention of the other pupils upon his performance as though it were a stunt in which the listeners had no responsibility except that of criticism. As evidence of this, let me mention the language classes in which several children give oral reports on the same topic. After the first report, all the talks become competitive efforts, the interest of the listeners is gone, and no one, least of all the speaker, thinks of his talk as communication.

The extremes to which class criticism has been carried in some language programs have developed many undesirable personality characteristics which offset any learning of better forms of speech that may have resulted. Supercritical listening, the offensive habit of correcting others, extreme docility and a sense of inferiority that is the inevitable reaction of timid children subjected to repeated comments upon their faults—all these tend to destroy the social nature of expression.

Replying to notes and letters is a form of listening in written language. While teachers usually let children write their own invitations and requests, they are not so careful to let the class write their acceptances or notes of appreciation. In the first two grades such notes must often be dictated to



the teacher who acts as secretary but the responsibility is felt by the class even then.

The teacher's example is infectious. She listens appreciatively, and draws out responses from the audience with questions and comments after some child has talked. By her manner she shows that she expects the class to listen and to enjoy.

Discussion is more demanding of listeners than reports. The give-and-take of conversation or discussion gives opportunity for many children to participate and stimulates listening because what each child says depends upon some previous remark. We should have fewer talks of the recitation type and more informal discussions, similar to those in which the child takes part daily at home and out of school. Plans for a trip or a party or the settling of some playground or room problem, are examples of subjects real enough to make good listeners.

#### ABILITY TO EXPRESS

This is the real responsibility of the school—to teach the child *how* to express his ideas clearly. All that precedes is not superfluous, however, because language skill can be developed far more easily when the stimulation and the setting are right.

The influence of the personality and language of the teacher cannot be overemphasized. Courteous, natural expression, free from sentiment or effusiveness, is what the child has a right to expect from adults about him. The habit which some teachers have of speaking of themselves by name when giving directions, "Miss Sanborn would like to have you use crayons," is unnatural because it is not usual outside the classroom. Extreme compliments about the child's accomplishments, appearance, or behavior embarrass reticent children. The more natural, sincere, and direct are the teacher's relations with her class, the easier it will be to secure the kind of language expression she desires from them.

Most of our language training has been

primarily concerned not with *how* to say it but with *how not* to say it. Pick up almost any language book and count the pages given to correction as against those devoted to preparation and constructive helpful suggestions. The learning effect of correction is not gained until the next opportunity for expression. By that time the point has been forgotten, and the correction must be made again. Time and effort are far more wisely spent in helping the child before he has to announce a program or take part in one, instead of after he has taken part. The child receives the help in a better spirit, his confidence is established by the teacher's approval of his contribution, and his sense of achievement in his performance later makes him willing and eager to try again. A brief rehearsal of his little talk with the teacher establishes a fine relationship because at that time he comes seeking guidance—while later he would merely endure her criticisms.

The building of confidence is fundamental to the ability to express. Analyze the times when you have yourself felt expression to be difficult. Perhaps you were called upon unexpectedly, or you were asked to talk on something you didn't know about, or you may even have been asked to discuss that nebulous "anything you think we would like to hear" or "anything at all that you want to tell us about." Perhaps you felt constrained because of a very critical audience. As teachers, we have been guilty of permitting in our classrooms all of those handicaps to free, enjoyable expression. All too seldom is a child allowed to think about the topic before he is expected to talk upon it, seldom does he feel that he knows more about it than the others to whom he talks, and nearly always he is expected to be bursting with topics that he would like to talk about. Let us try in every way possible to give the child a feeling of security before subjecting him to the harrowing experience of facing a group of his fellows and realizing that he hasn't anything to say.



In the written work of primary children we have placed insurmountable barriers in the way of free expression. By the time a third-grade child has recalled all the "standards," class-made though they may be, he has lost both the desire and the courage to put down any original ideas. Even in the sensible schools where only a minimum of form is taught in the lower grades, the effort to remember that a margin must be kept, capital letters placed on names and at the beginning of sentences, and periods at the end, must handicap the free flow of ideas.

The rough copy is one simple solution to the problem. Ideas will flow freely because the direction is to "get your thought on paper." With this encouragement children may come to think of written expression as a pleasurable experience. At the present time there are few occasions in our classrooms where children think of writing as real communication. A little third-grade girl, who had been allowed with others in the class to write a letter to the school janitor who had just been injured, reported at home, "And just think of it, Mother. We could write *anything* we wished!"

Even the most careless child realizes that his rough draft is not suitable for mailing so he proceeds under the teacher's direction to copy his letter in some simple acceptable form. Sometimes a chart of the letter form

on the blackboard, an example of a good letter in the textbook, or a lantern slide showing the form will help children to develop independence in learning form. It is not wise to make the class completely dependent on the teacher for direction and for knowledge of mechanics. At the time of copying, with the need very apparent to him, the child is in a readiness stage for specific instruction on mechanics. All such teaching should be concentrated on a single point at one time if any learning is expected.

To the very young, the very old, and the very great we now give the privilege of free speech. Upon the very young, society has not yet imposed its stereotyped forms and patent expressions; with the very old, society is tolerant; and with the very great, society is awed and rightly respectful of freedom of speech. The individuality and charm of expression characteristic of these three groups may be the result of their escape from standardization. Can we not release some of the tensions which still exist in our classrooms and capitalize upon the naturalness and enthusiasm for communication with which children enter school? A nation of teachers aroused, as ours has been recently, to protest their right to freedom of speech should be peculiarly sensitive and ready to grant to children, also, their right to *free speech*.

---

The purpose of education is to train children, not with reference to their success in the present state of society, but to a better possible state, in accordance with an ideal conception of humanity.

—IMMANUEL KANT

# Implications of Language in Beginning Reading

OLGA ADAMS

THAT language skills play an important part in beginning reading has long been emphasized but the full implication of that part is often not appreciated or understood by all teachers of reading. Thus the part is inadequately played. Many children are plunged into reading before they have developed vocabularies to express their own ideas clearly, to say nothing of their lack of ability to understand the content to be read. They are expected to read complete sentences with "expression" before they are "expressing" their own ideas. They are supposed to follow consecutive lines of thought through the simple primer stories while they are still in the single-idea stage of their own composition experience. Not until children have developed some ability in oral expression can they be expected to comprehend or reproduce through reading the ideas of others. Familiar comments of adults bear out this statement. "I had to drop that course. I couldn't talk the language of it." "I couldn't read that book. The ideas were expressed in much too complicated a manner for my understanding." Inasmuch as children are not usually permitted to "drop the course" or side-step the "book" of their own volition, they must have, as at least one essential prerequisite to their beginning reading, sufficient language ability for the task.

Experiences which promote the development of this language ability are of two kinds: those which are incidental to or the natural accompaniment of various other types of school activities, and those which are specifically planned by the teacher as language activities. The first makes an indirect contribution to the skill and the second is

*Miss Adams, instructor in the elementary school, University of Chicago, points out the implications of the part language plays in beginning reading, and discusses incidental and specifically planned language activities which help the child to increase his vocabulary and to form his own ideas.*

a direct factor in its acquisition. Both are essential and will be discussed in the order mentioned.

## INCIDENTAL LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES

It is a rare school nowadays which does not give some opportunity for free, spontaneous, oral language expression. Fluency has in itself no special virtue but out of it may be developed the ability to organize ideas in a clear, concise form. This, in turn, is essential to reading, even in the beginning stages, if intelligent understanding of the material read is the aim, not mere word calling. What are some of the opportunities for spontaneous oral expression of this incidental type?

*Arrival Time Each Day*—Animated conversation will begin usually as soon as the first two children arrive. Shy, retiring children who will not say a word in the more organized language activities often make a beginning in ease and fluency of expression in a friendly corridor or room as wraps are being cared for.

*Self-chosen Activity Period*—A daily self-chosen activity period or some such informal time which is coming to have its place in all kindergartens and primary grades gives invaluable opportunity for the promotion of natural language expression through child-initiated conversation if the well-intentioned

teacher does not take the stand that "talking interferes with work." The conversation may be concerned with the occupation itself. David may tell John how to go about making an airplane. It may be the give and take of dramatic play. There is no one other activity that develops the vocabulary as does dramatic play in which the words of adults are taken over wholesale. The conversation may be entirely unrelated to whatever the children are doing—just a friendly exchange of experiences over "a cup of tea" as it were. Visiting may be the sole occupation of some children at this time, and why not in a self-chosen activity period? It is a rare child who does not in a few weeks become articulate in contacts with the more voluble children in such happy, informal situations.

Every type of language expression may be heard during this time: narration, description, exposition, argumentation—often a little too much of this. Most every topic under the sun comes in for discussion at one time or another—a far greater range each day than any teacher could ever introduce in a given language period. True, a great deal of the talk does not have much content value but through it children have abundant practice under favorable conditions in the acquisition of an essential skill. The very breadth of topics discussed and the forms of speech used are excellent preparation for the content to be encountered in various beginning books.

*Elementary Science and Social Studies*—These periods present almost limitless opportunities for language expression. Plenty of time should be given children to "visit" over the content and the manual activities related to these interests. In this way a distinct vocabulary will be acquired which will make related reading, whenever it is encountered, a meaningful, natural form of expression. "Lane" will not be a strange, pictureless word to the children who have constructed a farm and made the cows "come down the lane" many times in their play.

An ability is developed not only to express individual ideas on a given topic but also to understand and act on the ideas of others—a most important forerunner of the ability to understand printed ideas. Practice is provided in anticipating and following through organized lines of thought or sequences of ideas—a definite factor in making reading experiences easy and natural. This very ease carries some children over what might otherwise be most uninteresting drudgery of word drill and they learn to read almost without knowing it. Thus this language expression, however much it is pointed to the development of particular content subjects, does make its contribution to beginning reading. In fact it often forms the material out of which beginning reading is made.

*Music, Art, and Dancing*—What has been said of these rather specialized fields of interest may be applied also to other expressive activities such as music, drawing, painting, dancing. If children are not permitted to talk about their own productions they are being deprived of part of the joy of such creation and perhaps of the opportunity to clarify their own thinking and thus improve their efforts. This "talking about" in turn makes its contribution to reading as it familiarizes children with certain rather specialized words and characteristic phrases as, for example, partner, clear colors, keep in time, high and low notes.

#### SPECIFICALLY PLANNED LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES

The entire development of language skills implied in introductory reading cannot be left to these incidental, unorganized opportunities, valuable as they are in the complete role. In order to be sure that each child is having the training for his particular needs and to keep track of his growth, some more organized procedures are necessary. Particular attention may well be devoted each day to the direct promotion of these needed lan-



guage skills. Various practices may be employed as incentives for this daily exercise, some of which will be described.

*Conversing Informally*—On the first day of school in the fall the children may be gathered in front of the teacher in an informal fashion for conversation concerning their names, ages, or some such topic upon which even the most shy will usually vouch information. This "breaks the ice" and many children will talk on one subject or another. A certain time each day may be set aside for such conversation and the following records kept by the teacher: children who never volunteer to talk, those who want to talk but have little ability or ease, those who talk fluently and well. Upon the basis of these records three groups may be organized, as soon as it is feasible, in order to give the special type of opportunity and training necessary for each child. If school routine does not permit such detailed grouping, two groups should be maintained, for a while at least, to give the non-talkers the needed practice under most favorable conditions. Of course the children will not think of this period as any sort of practice time. They usually will hail it most enthusiastically as "showing" or "telling" time if it has been organized wisely to meet their interests and needs.

About the same procedures may be followed in each group but progress will be made at different rates. In the beginning the children may be urged to bring "things" to show and to talk about. Such concrete material is excellent for the promotion of ease in oral expression. In the group of children who talk fairly well it is soon necessary to add new incentives to stimulate further effort. Suggest to them that they bring their articles wrapped and be ready to give "hints" in order that other children may guess the content. This is a great stimulus to the choice of good words which will suggest but not "give away." The children soon find out that they will be subjected to a good deal of

criticism if the hints are not adequate, and laughed at if they tell too much. This simple device brings about word discrimination, tends to enlarge vocabularies, and whets children's intellects. A boy who described a python rock snake skin so accurately that the children were able to guess it, after good hard thinking and elimination of guesses which did not take account of the hints, had chosen his words with considerable care.

*Relating Personal Experiences*—The next step is that of telling about experiences which they have had. This is a much more difficult language task because the audience has to be held by words alone. Descriptions must be more vivid and points made more clearly. The following is an example of vivid description which did hold attention and inspire questions:

The mother robin laid a blue egg and only one at first. It looked like an Easter egg. Then she laid another egg and then another. She only had three eggs. Then one hatched, then another, then the other one. They were so little when they hatched. Then when they got big with some feathers on they looked like the mother. They cried for food and my father and the janitor took a glass down and looked for worms. Then daddy nailed a board up at the window so the birds wouldn't fall out. And the mother just cheeped and cheeped and just wouldn't keep quiet. One of the robins was trying to fly and fell in the alley and a police dog tried to eat it. Daddy took him in the house and put it in a box and then late at night got up and put it back in the nest.

By the time a child is able to tell about an experience in a sufficiently complete, clear, organized fashion as to command the interested attention of his audience, it may be assumed that *in so far as language skills are concerned*, he is ready to begin to read.

*Expressing Courtesies and Social Amenities*—Expressing certain courtesies and social amenities also widens vocabularies and prepares children for forms of expression which they will encounter in their later reading. Birthdays and holidays offer excellent



opportunities. First birthday wishes are apt to follow about the same pattern, "Happy Birthday," but eventually ingenuity that would tax an adult may be brought into play in attempts to give a different wish. The Thanksgiving, Christmas, and Easter holidays may stimulate the expression of appropriate wishes or greetings. The everyday social contacts bring multiple situations which may be made to involve the expression of social conventions and obligations. With what chuckling did certain second-grade children read a story about "that big word, 'responsibility.'" "Oh, we know what that means," they said, "we talked about that in kindergarten." And no child had to be told the "big word" a second time.

*Writing Letters*—Skill in oral language expression does not meet all the requirements necessary for an easy, happy beginning in reading. Some experience in written composition is invaluable, not only for the practice in using just the right words to express ideas, in stating these ideas in interesting and varied ways, and in developing appreciation of the necessity for appropriate beginnings and endings, but also for the repeated contacts the children can have with their finished products. These contacts tend to fix certain desirable language forms and to prepare for encounters with them in later reading.

Such compositions may take the form of letters dictated to the teacher by a child or a group of children. Beginning efforts are apt to be very monotonous in form but in due time interesting, well-expressed letters can be composed which exhibit continuity and a "feel" for sequence of ideas. For example:

Chicago, Illinois

Wednesday, May 29, 1935

Dear Children who are out with measles and chicken-pox and colds:

We have 8 little baby chicks. We have a black one. His name is Midnight. And we have

6 yellow chicks. We have not named them yet. We have 1 white one. His name is Middy.

Monday they hatched. There were 5 eggs that did not hatch.

The first food the baby chicks had was hard-boiled egg. Mrs. Clucky called her chicks when she saw something for them to eat.

The chicks sleep under their mother's wings.

This morning Mrs. Clucky took a sand bath. Midnight got under her when she was taking her bath and he got all sandy. That was his bath. He almost got sand in his eyes. The other babies looked at their mother and wondered what she was doing.

We will keep the chickens until school is out for the summer. You will see them when you come back. We hope that you will come back soon.

Love from the Kindergarten

*Making Charts and Books*—A general practice in kindergartens and beginning first grades is to have the children record interesting experiences or plans in so-called charts. The children dictate the content to the teacher who in turn prints the material on large-sized paper, adding pictures or other decoration as she sees fit. In the kindergarten this kind of material often hangs about the room unnoticed after the first day. In the first grade, it is usually used for beginning reading. The initial experience of preparing this chart material has good language value and is of pre-reading importance, but the later effectiveness of it is often lost because the charts tend to drop from attention as they are shunted into less conspicuous places in the room. Certain measures may be taken to keep this material alive both in kindergarten and first grade. Typed copies illustrated by the children may be accumulated in an attractive loose-leaf book to be kept on the library table, for children to enjoy. It may be possible for each child to have copies of these stories and to make his own book—often the most valued possession from which he may go a long way in teaching himself to read.

*Creative Self-expression*—A somewhat different type of book may grace the kinder-

garten and first-grade libraries—the original stories and poetry of individual children. It is through such collections that the teacher can know definitely the language abilities and needs of each one. If a child expresses his ideas in full sentences and shows some composition sense, he gives concrete evidence that he is ready to interpret appropriate material that others have written. The child who wrote the following lines shows a feeling for poetic form which will enable her to read the poems of others with much more appreciation than one who has never tried such expression:

My house is all white,  
But as I got outside I was teased  
Because it wasn't white  
Only little snow drops falling,  
Falling very light

All around the house indeed  
There is a little bit of snow  
And all around the ground  
Is very white

The girl who wrote this story for the "Kindergarten Story Book" will feel quite at home in the stories she encounters in her first reader:

I had a little pussy cat.  
He was a black one.  
His name was little Black Sambo.  
He was as much trouble as ten cats.  
We called him and he never came, so we had  
to sneak up and lift him.  
He drinks lots of milk.  
He eats cat food.

It is not always necessary for the teacher to do all the recording of children's compositions. They may "scribble" their own stories before they have learned to write. At first they are apt to be self-conscious, saying, "I can't write," but after being told that their form of writing, scribbling if that is

what they wish to call it, serves the same purpose for them as "real" writing does for older people, they usually will enter into the practice readily. Especially vivid experiences are the best incentives for these scribbled compositions. The teacher is furnished with further excellent proof of the skill with which individuals express themselves and with evidence of their composition sense as they "read" their stories to her. After a thrilling excursion to Jackson Park, the child who wrote, "We went to Jackson Park. That's all," might be ready to read in the "I-see-a-cat" type of primer in so far as composition sense and interest in sequence of recorded events is concerned, but certainly is not as ready to read in the modern story-type of primer as another child in the same group who wrote:

When we were going to the beach we had to go through the park. And then we got there and played on the beach and dug tunnels under the sand. And then we took off our shoes and emptied the sand out of them. Then we ate our graham crackers and went back home. It was fun.

Should these various language experiences be made to lead very directly to the vocabulary of the basic primer? This would seem to be a most limiting, artificial procedure. It would tend to defeat the very purpose for which all of these experiences are pointed: that of *increasing* the vocabularies of children and giving them *abundant opportunity* in the formation of their own ideas in order that they may be better prepared to get meaning from reading wherever they find it—in the reader, at the book table, in the science class, in the story or poetry hour. It is through this very abundance of varied experience that real language skill is developed, and only out of such skill can real reading ability be developed.

# Eliminating the Need for Some Types of Remedial Work in Reading

AGNES L. ADAMS

"IN GRADE I, 99.15 per cent of the pupils failing promotion were marked failures in reading; in Grade II the percentage was approximately 90; in Grade III approximately 70."<sup>1</sup> What stronger evidence is needed of the importance schools place upon reading in those grades? From the standpoint of mental hygiene, what a sad beginning for this large band of first graders so early dubbed "failures." Surely every teacher sincerely interested in the welfare of little children is spurred to discover how to aid them in achieving success and avoiding an early stigma of "failure."

Dr. Marion Monroe in the introduction of her book, *Children Who Cannot Read*, says, "Learning to read is a prolonged process extending over a number of years and is subjected to many influences of methods, attitudes, interests, motivations, distributions of time and effort, and almost all the factors that affect any learning process." She says further, "Until recent years we have assumed that any child who attended school regularly could learn to read and that if he did not he was either stupid or lazy."<sup>2</sup>

The general public has added to this opinion that any teacher unable within the first three years to make all her students able readers, possessed these traits also, as well as possibly some laxity in "discipline." We are aware now that the problem is more complex than this and that more definite training and attention must be given to specific sources of difficulty which may eventuate in distinct reading disabilities. The dis-

*What are the causes of children's reading "failures" and what preventive measures can be used to eliminate these "failures"? Miss Adams, instructor in the National College of Education, Evanston, Illinois, gives some specific suggestions.*

covery that children of high mental ability may be able to achieve in all lines except those involving reading, meeting only failure here, is a source of very genuine concern. This type of child may be so greatly distressed over his failure that he becomes a distinct behavior problem and often a maladjusted personality.

Studies<sup>3</sup> of children experiencing reading difficulty reveal that there is no one causative factor present in all cases. They also indicate that some factors not significant in differentiating groups of poor readers from good readers seem definitely to impede reading progress in individual cases. Numerous other studies indicate that reading defects are probably due to a group of factors rather than to any one isolated cause.

## FACTORS BASIC TO READING READINESS

At a recent meeting in which a group of primary teachers were discussing remedial reading problems, one speaker, a first-grade teacher in a forward-looking school system, said that her task as she saw it as a first-grade teacher was that of "putting the remedial teachers out of business." It is true that increasingly we are attempting to put upon the shoulders of the room teacher the responsibility for the adjustment of work to the

<sup>1</sup> The Improvement of Reading. (p. 4) By A. I. Gates. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927.

<sup>2</sup> Children Who Cannot Read. By Marion Monroe. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932.

<sup>3</sup> "Causes of Poor Reading and Remedial Technique." By Paul A. Witty and David Kopel. *The Illinois Teacher*, September, 1935, 24:28.



varying needs of pupils and the care for variations from the group, in all but extreme cases. For that reason she must be aware of particular causes of failure found frequently in cases of reading disability so that she may build such a preventive program that these individual difficulties will not advance and finally become the camel which crowds the owner from his tent.

The trained teacher is aware that all children in learning to read make many errors which are gradually eliminated as a part of the natural process of learning. She will, however, be alert to discover the child who fails to read as well as might be expected from his other intellectual abilities and to apply suitable procedure before he presents a serious educational problem. The ounce of prevention here is worth even more than the pound of cure.

No better preventive against many reading disabilities can be suggested than a sound, well-constructed program which will provide a background from which will come children with adequate readiness for reading instruction. With the building of such readiness the kindergarten teacher is quite as much concerned as the teacher of first grade, though in only very rare cases would we advocate actual reading instruction for the kindergarten group.

A wide background of experiences, beside providing direct background for materials the child will read about, will stimulate many hungry interests which later reading materials will help to satisfy. Children sufficiently eager "to find out" will be more likely to find a way to read than their lethargic brothers. One of the tragedies of our schools is their all too frequent failure to stimulate and to keep alive an ever-widening range of curiosities and interests. The report of a recent study of case histories of fifty poor readers revealed the two highest contributory factors to be a lack of interest—84 per cent, and a meager background of experience—82 per cent (Witty and Kopel).

Beside providing a motivation for reading, a broad background of experiences will yield a background of meanings for the materials being read. The word, "chick," will present an accurate concept in contrast to the confusion experienced by a group of first-grade children in a settlement region who thought pictures of chickens were sparrows, their nearest approach to baby chicks.

Ability to understand and to use language with a fair degree of facility will be greatly increased by these experiences furnished by the home and the school. What group of children will fail to question about things they see and enjoy, and to discuss them eagerly? The kindergarten or first-grade teacher will encourage free discussion about the experiences of individuals and groups inside the school and out and will urge natural, spontaneous expression and the use of whole sentences and correct English.

General physical fitness is a necessity for the greatest progress in reading. Teachers attempting to teach a group of malnourished children whose low vitality and gnawing stomachs present too great competition to concentration upon reading materials will agree wholeheartedly to this inclusion. Defective vision or hearing may also handicap from the start the process of reading. The plan now being used in many communities of having a campaign in the months previous to the opening of school for the careful and thorough physical examination of all would-be school entrants to determine physical fitness, to detect any defects of eyes, ears, teeth, tonsils and adenoids, and to have these defects remedied before entrance to first grade will do much to cut down the present high percentage of first-grade failures. The ill child is unable to give his best attention to the problem of learning to read and his frequent absences will cause him to lose interest in the many enterprises of the room and also to miss many of the important first steps.

The child who has made satisfactory social adjustments with other children and is emo-

tion  
tion  
garc  
for  
geth  
tion  
garc  
simi  
phas

In  
havi  
tion  
expe  
six y  
that  
a ha  
prog  
your  
ical  
instr

the  
dem  
wise  
mole  
even  
discr

proc  
Th  
theo  
read  
six i  
dang  
Win  
defe  
six a

R

Be  
ket s  
of re  
A

...  
Morph  
March  
R  
Hough  
By M  
Baran  
Yonke



tionally balanced will not lose time and attention from the reading process. The kindergarten, with its unusually fine opportunities for social contacts and needs for working together, will thereby make a major contribution to reading. In the absence of a kindergarten the first-grade teacher through a similar emphasis assures herself of this phase of readiness for reading.

In usual practice, children are regarded as having acquired the prerequisite organizations of language, attentional stability, and experiences and attitudes by the time they are six years old. Authorities are generally agreed that a chronological age of at least five and a half years is necessary for normal reading progress. What teacher has not seen the too young child whose interest and need is physical activity and freedom rather than reading instruction? Physicians are not agreed that the time of comparative physical inactivity demanded by many reading programs is the wisest preparation for life. Nor are ophthalmologists agreed that the eyes of children of even six years of age are ready for the fine discriminations necessitated by the reading process.

There is somewhat general agreement in theory, though not in practice, that beginning reading instruction before a mental age of six is not only wasteful of time but also dangerous to attitudes toward reading. The Winnetka study<sup>4</sup> indicates greater gains by deferring the process until a mental age of six and a half is achieved.

#### READING AS ONE PHASE OF GROWTH

Beside observation, there are on the market several reliable tests for the measurement of reading readiness.<sup>5</sup>

A genuine interest in reading is stimulated

through an environment, rich in reading content, suited to the child's level. The use by adults, with whom the child is associated, of books as sources of information, interest, and pleasure further assures a similar interest on his own part.

Though in theory teachers are aware that children vary in the rate of learning, in practice they are all too forgetful and unwilling to let them proceed at their own rate, happily and with no feeling of failure at not keeping up with their friends. Flexible reading groups from which children may move without making it over-obvious, and different materials for each group so that comparisons in achievement are less possible, make these distinctions in rate of learning less serious to the mental health of the child.

How long will it be before the pressure upon undue subject-matter learnings is sufficiently decreased so that first-grade teachers can, without fear, accord reading its natural part in the child's environment, as only one phase of growth, albeit an important one, at this level? The present severe standards for reading achievement for first grade in many states still preclude this possibility and are largely responsible for the too-early introduction to reading instruction, and the too-exclusive devotion to it to the detriment of the child's attitude and often to his reading habits. Dare we begin reading except under the stimulus of keen interest and until the child is otherwise ready for the process?

#### CAUSES OF READING FAILURES

Even with such complete readiness for reading instruction as has been described, certain individuals will still experience difficulties in learning. Attention to specific causes for such failure found in studies of children already cases of reading disability may serve as a warning signal to the primary teacher.

Dr. Monroe lists seven distinct types of causes of reading failures:<sup>6</sup>

<sup>6</sup> *Op cit.*, Chapter 5.

<sup>4</sup> "When Should Children Begin to Read?" By Mabel V. Morphet and C. Washburne. *Elementary School Journal*, March, 1931, 31:496-503.

<sup>5</sup> Reading Aptitude Test. By Marion Monroe. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935. Reading Readiness Test. By Marvin Van Wagenen. Minneapolis: Educational Test Bureau. Metropolitan Readiness Test. By Gertrude Hildreth. Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Company.

Difficulties related to visual aspects.

Lack of clear-cut retinal images, due to defects in refractive mechanisms of the eye, cause inability to distinguish patterns of letters and there may be confusion of similar patterns, as Billy-Betty (authors of early reading texts might thus have avoided confusion on the part of many children).

Lack of precision in discriminating orientation and sequence of letters as saw-was, b-d, may have connection with opposite eye-hand dominance which is thought to hinder coordination of directional response. The development of left to right eye movements seems to be more difficult for the left than for the right-eyed child since directional movement seems to extend naturally from the center of the body outward.

Difficulties related to auditory aspects.

Defects in discriminating speech sounds may lead to confusion of words, sand-send, which affect speech, reading, or both. Poor auditory acuity may account in part for omission of endings and the less obvious syllables.

Difficulties related to motor aspects.

Lack of motor control of the eyes so as to adjust to movement across the page or to fixating on specific words will cause trouble in keeping to lines and getting the material in correct sequence. Inaccurate articulation may directly affect reading by confusing sounds and printed symbols. The child hears the differences in words as he and others speak them and there results confusion in both mechanics and comprehension.

Difficulties related to conceptual aspects.

Faulty vocabulary and sentence construction cause difficulties in comprehension.

Difficulties related to method.

Overstress on speed and on certain methods of word recognition may cause habits impeding progress in reading.

Difficulties related to environment are well known to teachers.

Difficulties related to emotional factors, such as fear induced in early reading periods, are often very lasting.

Several causes may produce the same reading error, *e.g.*, faulty sound sequence discrimination and poor discrimination in visual orientation might both result in calling c-a-t, t-a-c.

It is important and possible to discover somewhat early the progress which the child

has made in eye-movement habits. If available the Ophthalm-O-Graph, sold by the American Optical Company, gives an accurate picture of the actual habits of the eyes during reading. By it we can determine precisely the number of fixations or stops the eyes make in reading, the regressive or backward movements, and any other variations in the movement of the eyes in crossing the page.

A simple means, available to the teacher for discovering the gross eye-movements, is to place a small mirror on the page opposite that being read and then to watch the eyes of the child in the mirror, as he reads. Another method is to have the reader sit directly opposite the observer, holding his book so that his eyes are barely visible above. As he reads, the observer can then detect rhythmical eye-movement as well as steady progress across the page and an accurate return sweep.

#### SPECIFIC PREVENTIVE MEASURES

1. Establish left to right directional movement in reading.

- a. The kindergartner who is reading to children from books, charts, and labels can definitely habituate them to this order of procedure long before they begin the process of reading for themselves. She may move her hand beneath the reading content, indicating the right direction for the eyes to follow. Further, she will mention that in reading "we always begin at this side of the page and go this way," indicating the direction. She will bring her hand to the beginning of the next line, thus indicating accurate return sweep. By the teacher's early awareness of the problem, children might thus avoid many confusions of direction which they now experience. Reading is perhaps the first visualization where it has made any difference as to the order used in observing an object.

- b. Prolonged work on charts, in early reading, with the teacher and children using a gliding finger or pointer and following this marker with their eyes, will go far toward establishing correct direction in reading. Any unknown word to which special attention is given should be examined in this same order; use the finger or pointer to indicate correct order of examining any new or difficult word being re-studied.

- c. The use of kinesthetic measures is recom-

mended as overt physical movement is more easily illustrated than eye-movement and can be continued, with intelligent supervision for a time, without danger of permanent harm in the opinion of Gates.<sup>7</sup> With words confused in the orientation of letters, was-saw, or with similar letter confusions, b-d, the sounding-tracing method has been found helpful. It is important to keep the eye, voice, and hand together during the process. Underlining words as they are said, again synchronized, also furthers the correct habit for which we are striving and is at times more serviceable for children of meager writing ability or those slow in response.

d. Such devices as a word dictionary (as suggested by Gates), listing words by their beginnings, should precede any listing by "families," for it calls attention to the initial part of the word, thus deepening the habit we are emphasizing. A large dictionary of chart size to be used by the whole group has been found quite as satisfactory as the individual dictionaries made and used by older children. Words often recurring in reading and noted by the children or other words from their speaking vocabulary are appropriate for inclusion in this book.

2. Establish several means of attack on words rather than attempt to secure a high degree of skill in any one mode; none will work in all situations. The earliest method of attack in point of usage should probably be context but this should soon—when children show interest in word forms—be supplemented by attention to word characteristics. Discover from the children the cues by which they detected the word. Random guessing should never be encouraged.

3. In so far as possible avoid confusions. Build a clear concept of one word and attempt to fix it in the child's consciousness before presenting for comparison another similar in meaning or pattern. Too frequently the teacher tests children on words barely presented, building up confusion thereby which is exceedingly difficult to dispel. Rather than presenting for correction a list of words, put before the child only one at a time in varied settings, urging varied methods of recall. The blackboard or a "magic slate" are good equipment for kinesthetic work, for with them any errors can be quickly and easily removed from sight.

4. Picture individual successes through graphs. The number of words or lines read accurately may be pictured by a bar or line graph

which the child may watch from day to day to compare with his previous achievement. With the young child each unit—representing sentence or word—should be large enough so that several such units will make appreciable difference in the height of the graph.

5. Watch for signs of eye-strain such as pain, redness of eyes, smarting or twitching. Any such indication should mean an immediate visit to the oculist. Difficulty in staying at the task of reading when interested in the content, and there is no other evidence to deter, may well demand the attention of the oculist to discover whether there is difficulty in fusion, muscle imbalance, etc., causing a strain of which even the child is not aware.

#### READING SUCCESS FOR ALL CHILDREN

As we look into the future of developments regarding reading we note with genuine satisfaction the increasing interest of ophthalmologists in the use of the eyes in reading, concern for more discriminating measures of eyes, and some evidence of greater cooperation between these specialists and those in education. There may well come into greater use preventive exercises to train the eyes in eye-movements essential to reading such exercises as those offered by the Metron-O-Scope, a machine now increasingly used in the offices of ophthalmologists to remedy cases of poor eye habits. At kindergarten level, with a picture series, the correct directional movement, return sweep and quick response might be developed with limited use of such a machine.

If the evident trend toward a more natural and gradual introduction to reading postpones the more abstract phases of reading instruction and reading from books until a later age, it is imperative that the first reading books be definitely changed in content to present greater challenge and interest to the more mature children using them.

In spite of the extensive work already done to improve reading instruction, much remains to be accomplished in order to make success possible for all children in this necessarily complex skill.

<sup>7</sup> *Reversal Tendencies in Reading*. By A. I. Gates and C. C. Bennett. New York: Teachers College Bureau of Publications, 1933, p. 29.



# Acquiring Good Speech Habits in Early Childhood

ELIZABETH D. McDOWELL

TEACHERS of young children are pretty well agreed upon the fact that proficiency in speech is an important factor in the successful culmination of school activities. They are not so well agreed, however, upon what "proficiency in speech" implies nor upon the means whereby it is acquired. This discussion represents an attempt to focus attention upon these two questions with special emphasis upon their implications in regard to desirable speech experiences for young children. The reader should bear in mind that the ideas set forth are those of a specialist in speech problems rather than those of a teacher who is responsible for the child's whole day and should make due allowance for this fact in interpreting the recommendations given. The title includes the term, "good speech habits," consequently the discussion will be concerned with a critical discussion of desirable speech behavior as well as with an account of the information available from research projects.

## THE NATURE OF SPEECH PROFICIENCY

Speech is essentially a means for controlling situations, consequently speech proficiency cannot be considered apart from the situations in which it is applied. A general discussion of the nature of speech proficiency when translated into terms of desirable speech behavior on the part of young children must take account of the fact that an act of speech always has three aspects, the social, the semantic, and the phonetic. Social behavior characteristic of good speech may be described as social responsiveness and may range all the way from the mere tolerance of others in the group to actively seeking out persons to participate in a speech situation.

*The nature of speech proficiency and the means whereby it can be acquired, especially in regard to desirable speech experiences of young children, is discussed by Dr. McDowell, professor of speech at Teachers College, Columbia University. She also gives some helps in promoting good speech hygiene.*

Some of the steps which indicate growth in the social aspects of speech behavior are:

1. Is tolerant of a few familiar persons in a speech situation
2. Is tolerant of a few strangers among familiar persons
3. Is tolerant of many familiar persons in a speech situation
4. Is tolerant of a group of strangers in familiar situations
5. Actively seeks contacts with familiar persons in a speech situation
6. Actively seeks contacts with strangers in a speech situation
7. Is alert to the comfort or discomfort of others in the group
8. Follows group purposes with acquiescence
9. Directs group purposes by his own suggestions and by appreciation of the suggestions of others
10. Makes definite effort to place other members of the group in rapport by aligning their purposes with those of the group

Marked deviations from such socially responsive behavior are commonly known as shyness, self-consciousness, indifference, aggressiveness, conceit, or exhibitionism.

Language or semantic skills deal with what one has to say. One is proficient in language when one has:

1. Suggestions to offer in the speech activity
2. Suggestions which are appropriate to the purpose
3. Suggestions which bear upon the point immediately being discussed

4. When he can make his suggestions understood
5. When he can make his suggestions effective in realizing the group purposes
6. When he can incorporate the suggestions of other members of the group into a sequence of ideas which will further the purpose of the group activity.

Those of us who are deficient in these respects are often described as dull, ineffectual, or scatter-brained.

Phonetic aspects of good speech habits may be described broadly as the hygienic and effective use of the speech mechanism. One is usually using his voice hygienically when he is using it most effectively, although such is not always the case. Marks of hygienic use of the mechanism are:

1. Easy, inaudible breathing, usually through the nose or high over the tongue
2. General pitch level suitable to that particular mechanism
3. Full, round, rich tones

Poor speech hygiene is detected by the gasping, noisy breath which is accompanied always by excessive tension in the larynx and by conditions which bring on congestion of the tissues of that organ. (Cold, dry, dusty air irritates the membranes, thereby inducing coughing and congestion.)

Inappropriate pitch level is recognized by inconsistency in quality of tone, thinness or hoarseness of quality, and presence of "static" or noises in the quality.

Excessive tensions are characteristic of gruffness, harshness, sharpness, and noisiness in tone quality, and inflexibility in melody and modulation.

Effective use of the speech mechanism is exemplified in:

1. Phrasing which is appropriate to the meaning and to the breathing and articulating processes involved
2. Stress patterns which have variety enough for interest and smoothness enough for fluency
3. Appropriate patterns of rate and for duration of sounds
4. Rich, full, resonant quality of tone

5. Patterns of melody and intonation appropriate to the meaning
6. Acceptable pronunciation of sound groups

Marks of ineffectual phonetic patterns are:

1. Phrasing which is jerky, inappropriate to meaning (too short or too long for easy comprehension of the sentence), or too difficult in motor coordination to be executed with distinctness
2. Inaudible speech, explosive utterance, or monotonous and uninteresting stress patterns
3. Rapid speech or slow scanning speech in which all sounds have equal length
4. Undesirable qualities of voice such as thinness, huskiness, breathiness, harshness, stridency, etc., described under poor voice hygiene
5. Melodies which are stereotyped, monotonous, always falling, always rising, or continuously going up and down in unvarying patterns which obscure meaning and give the listener an inappropriate emotional set
6. Unacceptable pronunciation can be described as indistinct, containing substitutions of one sound for another, omissions or additions of sounds

#### ACQUISITION OF SPEECH PROFICIENCY

Speech proficiency, although dependent upon special skills, is taught by contagion rather than by "drill" techniques. After all we cannot teach anybody anything; the best we can do is to set up situations in which he can learn. Situations providing favorable conditions for acquiring the mastery of the social, semantic, and phonetic skills upon which speech proficiency depends make up much of the child's program during the school day. Seldom is it necessary to introduce special speech activities, particularly when one is trying to emphasize the social and the language aspects of good speech behavior. Courtesy, social responsiveness, pertinent ideas, and active cooperation are essential ingredients of all communicative activity.

Two precautions must be taken, however, when one wishes participation in them to be followed by increased mastery of speech

techniques. First, opportunities must be provided for becoming aware of the influence of bodily expression upon one's chances for getting the desired response from the group. How to look at a person directly without staring, how to include all the members of the group by directing a few glances at each, how to sit and stand at ease without slouching, how to show interest in a speaker through facial expressions, are important techniques in social activities. A bit of direction and suggestion here and there during a story-hour or a discussion meeting will go a long way toward developing mastery of social techniques.

Second, the importance of such objectives as "to develop the sentence sense" and "to speak in sentences, marking them with appropriate pauses and inflections" must not be overstressed when speech proficiency is the desired outcome of a language activity. That spontaneity so essential to success in speaking is often jeopardized by over-emphasis upon sentence form in oral communication. Sentence melodies (intonation patterns) can make a complete idea out of a group of words which would have little meaning if written. One can usually identify a speech which was first written and then memorized by phraseology which sounds stilted and unnatural when given aloud in contrast with language formulated for the first time in response to the immediate situation and adapted to the fluctuating responses of listeners. All of us have known persons who "talked like a book."

Opportunities for improving the phonetic aspects of speech behavior occur less often in the usual activities of the child's day and more frequently must be provided for especially. Perhaps for this reason the terms speech and phonetic activities are sometimes used interchangeably.

Knowledge of conditions which promote better habits of speech hygiene should be a part of the professional equipment of every teacher in view of the fact that faulty speech

habits can seriously impair the mechanisms used in producing speech sounds. This fact has added importance when we consider that each of the organs of speech also performs functions essential to the physical survival of the individual and that injurious speech habits will interfere with these vital processes.

Some practical helps in promoting good speech hygiene follow:

Note carefully any attempts to take noisy, gasping breaths. Should they be frequent, insist upon an examination of the throat and nasal passages to disclose any obstructions which might interfere with good breathing. Do not encourage children to speak or sing or shout while walking or running. When breath seems labored or gasping, have the child rest while listening to easy, smooth speech patterns. When breath must come through the mouth because of nasal obstructions, have the child place the tip of his tongue on the hard palate in the position customary for saying the sound indicated by the letter L. Instead of pronouncing the sound of that letter, however, have him take a breath. He will find that as a result of this procedure he has sufficient breath, that it is moist, warm, and clean enough to promote comfort, and is subject to precise and easy muscular control.

Listen carefully to pitch levels. Children's voices are usually contralto. If voices seem too high or shrill, perhaps the activities are too stimulating; or perhaps there is too much noise from sources which produce high pitches (saws, hammers, shovels, metal toys, etc.). In order to be heard above the din a child will attempt to "speak louder." Instead of adding energy to his acoustic product he merely exerts more muscular energy. Such exertion usually is accompanied by pitch levels too high for consistent tone quality and for bodily comfort. Demonstrate to the speakers that they can be heard much better when they speak "under the high noises." In arranging children for group discussions avoid having them in rows facing a straight wall, particularly one with a slick hard surface. Instead, see that they face a corner so that reverberation does not complicate problems in getting comfortable pitch levels. If your community is planning a new building, see that soundproofed floors and acoustically treated walls are put into the specifications. They will be worth what they cost when appraised in terms of hygiene or the mechanisms used in speech.

The suggestions given for solving problems



in pitch level are equally applicable for those concerned with getting full, rich, resonant, easy, and pleasant tone quality. In the latter case, however, one must also provide for proper "voice placement" or selection of desirable resonances. Have the children make a cup of the two hands and place it in front of the mouth and nose so that the vibrating air is directed simultaneously through the mouth and nose into the cavity made by the hands. The rich tones which will result from directing sounds such as "ring, rang, rung," "ding, dong, bell" into the cavity will be gratifying and astonishing to both teacher and pupil. Having children direct their voices toward a forefinger held immediately in front of the lips is also helpful. Their attention should be called to the fact that "making the voice ring" is the best way to speak "louder."

Perhaps the most fundamental process in speech production is that of phrasing. Upon it depends the communication of the ideas, as well as the ease and precision of the execution of the motor activities. Children should understand the meaning of pauses and be able to utilize them for mobilization of the vocal and articulatory organs for producing the next group of sounds. The experience of producing phonetic patterns involves kinesthetic, visual, tactual, as well as auditory sensations. Speaking is in some respects like dancing and one's responses of pleasure and delight in the utterance of well-made phrases are akin to those he gets from the execution of other bodily rhythms.

An examination of the motor processes involved in reading aloud some of the materials contained in primers and first and second readers should make us pause. Their jerky irregular phrases and complex articulatory patterns are not only beyond the range of motor skills of young children but an undesirable motor experience for an adept. Speaking rhymes in unison, verse speaking, and choral work in which one can have the feel of finely made language upon his tongue are ways for building good motor habits in speech. Hearing literature read or hearing the patterns of the teacher's speech is helpful in appreciation of speech, but mere listening to

good phrasing will not insure its establishment as a part of one's repertory of speech skills. Provision for the development of such rhythmic control of speech as well as of other bodily activity should be incorporated into the program for the child's day. Our discussion of ways for improving breathing techniques called attention to the fact that speaking and gross motor activities should not occur synchronously. Nevertheless, the poise and sense of body control which comes from dancing is frequently transferred to speaking when speech activities follow eurhythmics.

Phrasing is the fundamental consideration in acquiring control of the motor processes of speech for other reasons. Good phrasing usually brings in its wake appropriate stress, length, and melody patterns, consequently the arduous task of teaching the latter group of techniques is lessened or even eliminated.

In the case of stuttering, one of the most conspicuous and serious evidences of lack of motor facility in speech, much benefit comes from producing well-phrased patterns of verse written in rhythms similar to those in waltz time. The problem of remedial training for stutterers rightly belongs to teachers of young children. Nine persons in every thousand stutter and eight of those so handicapped will have shown definite symptoms of the laryngeal cramps characteristic of stuttering before they have reached school age. The chances that any one will develop stuttering after adolescence are negligible. Stuttering does not tend to disappear of its own accord, nor is it outgrown. On the other hand, if neglected, it usually becomes more severe. The time for acquiring proper control is when cramps first appear.

Evidence in regard to the conditions which predispose one to stutter is, at present, far from conclusive. Nevertheless certain environmental factors do influence the career of the habit once it has become apparent. Children who have clicking or glottal sounds when initiating vowel sounds are exhibiting a mild symptom of the most conspicuous

aspect of stuttering. Opportunities to make easily initiated vowels which are incorporated into a well-phrased motor pattern will go a long way in eliminating these glottals. Listening to smoothly executed phrases rather than jerky, sharp staccato groups is also helpful in acquiring habitual practices of facile motor control of the larynx. The teacher's phrasing habits are one of the significant factors in speech education. Faulty phrasing, explosive stress patterns, and raucous tones not only disturb the rapport of the group and make cooperation difficult but they also put insurmountable hurdles in the way of persons who have neuromuscular difficulties in controlling voice and articulation. Stuttering children also respond favorably to attempts to reduce the motor activities in their daily schedule. They should not be asked to meet appointments which require haste and impel them "to step on it," and when the day is very full of activities which require much moving about one should make allowance for the fact that, in respect to motor agility, these children are "born slow."

Teachers of young children must also take much of the responsibility for training them to recognize and produce precisely the sounds which compose words and phrases. The "phonic" helps used to promote self-help in word recognition for reading are not applicable to problems involving the "phonetics" of speech. The unit of meaning in speech is a sentence, that of motor performance the phrase, and that of sound production the syllable. Attempts to reduce the syllable to isolated sounds are artifacts in that they do not make allowance for assimilations, elisions, etc. In teaching one to recognize isolated sounds or phonemes we must present him with a model which is only an approximate replica of the phoneme as it appears in the

syllable. Nevertheless the process of isolation does bring with it a sharpened awareness of sound differences and is helpful in using the dictionary.

The uses of phonetics in speech training, however, are not confined to sound recognition. Speech is a synthesis of sense impressions interpreted in terms of ideas and purposes. Kinesthetic, auditory, visual, and tactual perceptions are important in speech. Teaching a child to reproduce isolated sounds is dangerous practice and must be used with great care, for precision in sibilants frequently comes at the expense of facile use of the mechanism of voice production and results in laryngeal spasms. Production of an isolated sound should be followed immediately by the use of that sound in a phrase in such a way that the kinesthetic sensations of the incorporated sound constitute the most impressive part of the activity.

Confusion between the sounds of words and the looks of words in print is a constant source of difficulty in speech training. The unit of language is the word but the unit of speech production is the phrase. "Two and two" is not often pronounced as "two and two" but as "two 'n two." In the former case fluency is sacrificed to rationalization.

As we said in the beginning, speech is a complex body of behavior techniques. It furnishes the source of much of our enjoyment of ourselves and of our mastery over ideas and things. Because of its unlimited possibilities for study any discussion such as this is but an introduction to the problems. Nevertheless success in speech situations depends much upon the attitudes, habits, and techniques acquired in early life and teachers of young children must assume a share in the responsibility for developing skill in the oldest of the social tools.

# Summaries of Current Practices in the Teaching of Handwriting, Phonics, and Spelling

FRANK N. FREEMAN, WILLIAM S. GRAY, and FREDERICK S. BREED

THE MODERN approach to handwriting is very different from that of a generation ago. At that time the chief emphasis at the beginning was placed on acquiring skill in handling the pen or pencil and in making the forms of the letters or of movement exercises. Now the child is brought to think of writing as the expression of meaning from the very beginning of his attempt to write, and the problem of acquiring skill of hand is approached more gradually.

Handwriting acquires meaning for the child through presenting writing from the outset in connection with the natural situations in which it is used. This way of teaching it is sometimes called correlation. Writing is connected with the child's other activities, with reading, play, conversation, excursions, making a garden, caring for pets or what not. These activities suggest ideas the child would like to express. Writing is presented as a means of expressing these ideas.

In some schools the teacher shows the child how to write what he wishes to write but gives him little further help and does not seek to make his practice systematic. The more common and more psychologically justifiable method is to give the child both detailed assistance in the technique of writing and to arrange the practice so that the tasks will be graded and the difficulties attacked one at a time. Suggestions for introducing handwriting so that it will have meaning are contained in the bulletin by Kent.<sup>1</sup> Sugges-

*These summaries of current practices in teaching the tools of language in the primary grades have a very definite and important place in this special issue on Language Learnings. Dr. Freeman presents the summary on Handwriting; Dr. Gray, Phonics, and Dr. Breed, Spelling.*

tions for organizing practice are given in the articles by Freeman<sup>2</sup> and Shaw.<sup>3</sup>

The main points to be observed in organizing practice can only be mentioned here. A fundamental feature is good posture, both because of its effect on health and on the control of the writing movement. Attention must be given to the form of the letters both by studying good writing and by analyzing one's own writing. Some attention should be given to developing easy, fluent movement in which the fingers and arm unite into a harmonious coordination. The first writing should be at the blackboard, and the first seat writing should be large and done with a pencil or crayon.

Instruction and practice should be adapted to individual differences in skill and interest. Left-handed pupils should be allowed to use their left hands if the preference is very pronounced and they are markedly more skillful with their left hands. In such cases care should be taken that the children reverse the position of paper and hand.

<sup>2</sup> "Principles of Method in Teaching Writing as Derived from Scientific Investigation," pp. 11-25. By Frank N. Freeman, *Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1919.

<sup>3</sup> "Handwriting." *The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum*, pp. 113-125. By Lena A. Shaw, et al. *Fourth Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1926.

<sup>1</sup> "Building Readiness for Written Expression." By Blanche G. Kent. *Bulletin of the National Council of Primary Education*, June, 1931, 1-43.



The chief present-day issue concerns manuscript writing. Cursive writing can be quite successfully taught in the primary grades if the methods which have been outlined are used. However, a good many schools, impressed by the advantages claimed for manuscript writing, are using it in the primary grades, particularly grades one and two. Some of these advantages appear to be confirmed by the Voorhis study.<sup>4</sup> The chief advantages are an acceleration of learning to read, greater ease of learning writing, greater facility of written expression, and greater legibility and speed of writing in the first two or three grades. These seem worthy of consideration.

#### PHONICS

The place of phonics in teaching pupils to read has long been a subject of controversy. Some oppose its use because it often promotes undue interest in word forms at the sacrifice of attention to meanings. Others favor its use to a greater or less extent on the ground that it promotes accuracy and independence in recognizing words. Much evidence can be presented supporting each of these views. A satisfactory answer to the question, however, must be based on accurate knowledge of the characteristics of good readers and the needs of poor readers.

Studies of the habits of good readers show that in a majority of cases the general form of a word and its meaning are the clues by which it is recognized. In fact, they often recognize two or three familiar words at a single fixation of the eyes. But when they meet a new or difficult word, they often find it necessary to note to a greater or less extent the details of the word, the amount of analysis depending upon its complexity or difficulty. In other words, a good reader recognizes phrases, words, or parts of words as they serve his purpose best.

Facts concerning poor readers are equally

illuminating. In an analysis of the reading habits and errors of children, Professor Gates found that the poor readers seemed "to react . . . vaguely" to the word as a whole or failed "to perceive certain significant features of words."<sup>5</sup> When they could not recognize a word at a glance, many of them had no satisfactory method of attacking it. These conclusions are supported by evidence from records of eye movements while reading. Such records show that poor readers may recognize some words at single fixations but that other words cause serious difficulty and confusion. In commenting on such records, Professor Judd has said, "We have here come on evidence that shows us the need of teaching analysis. There is a demand in many cases for a smaller unit than the word. Unless the school trains the pupil to work out his words systematically he will do it badly and will exhibit confusion."<sup>6</sup>

The facts which have been presented make it clear that boys and girls should learn to recognize words and parts of words accurately and independently. But what are the aids to recognition which can be emphasized in teaching? There are at least seven to which brief reference will be made in this discussion, of which phonics is one. Without doubt, the most important aid is the meaning of what is read. Both experience and experiments provide abundant evidence of its value. They also show that it cannot be relied on exclusively. The good reader is one who makes use of the aids derived both from the context and from a sufficiently detailed scrutiny of the words to correct any error in anticipating the meaning.

The general form or outline of words is also a distinct aid in recognizing either their meaning or pronunciation. In fact, a child relies largely upon his memory of their gen-

<sup>4</sup> The Relative Merits of Cursive and Manuscript Writing. By Thelma G. Voorhis. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931. Pp. 58.

<sup>5</sup> The Psychology of Reading and Spelling. By Arthur I. Gates. Teachers College Contributions to Education No. 129, page 43. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1922.

<sup>6</sup> Reading: Its Nature and Development. By Charles H. Judd and others. Supplementary Educational Monographs, Vol. II, No. 4, page 60. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1918.

eral form in building up an early sight vocabulary. The fact should be pointed out, however, that children who depend too largely on this aid to recognition often make errors due to confusing words that are similar in form, such as *then* and *than*. It is evident in such cases that the first impression of a word secured from its total outline should be verified by a study of its meaning in a sentence or by the recognition of some of its elements or detailed features.

The foregoing statement indicates that the details of words are valuable aids in recognition. It is often both helpful and necessary to note important details and differences in words that are similar in form, such as the endings of *cap* and *bat* and the beginning of *there* and *where*. Failure to do so often leads to confusion and errors. The statement should be added that the rate of reading would be greatly retarded if the reader had to note specific details of each word in a passage. Most words should be recognized primarily through the aid of the context and their general form with only such clues from their detailed features as may be necessary to insure accuracy of recognition. These should be secured quickly with as little specific attention to such matters as may be necessary.

As soon as pupils begin to note the details of words, they often discover familiar elements in new words. For example, they note the familiar word *at* in the new word *bat* or the familiar word *and* in the new word *sand*. The recognition of such parts often provides a sufficient clue to recognition. Not infrequently, pupils go a step farther and note the similarity in the first part of the new word *bat* to the familiar word *big*. By applying their knowledge of the sound of this element, they are able to recognize the word *bat* with little or no aid.

The foregoing statement suggests an additional aid to recognition, namely phonics. As usually defined, phonics is a form of analysis in which the elements of a word are recognized and their sounds blended together

so that its pronunciation is derived. One of its values lies in the fact that phonetic elements have the same sound in all words of which they are parts. One of its serious limitations relates to the fact that many words are unphonetic.

Before going farther, the statement should be made that phonics should not be thought of as a method of learning to read. It is rather one of several aids in recognizing words. Other aids are: meaning, the general form or outline of words, significant details, familiar parts, the principles of syllabication and accent, and the dictionary. Phonics is of special value in recognizing words unfamiliar in appearance but familiar in sound. "The child who respects context and meaning in his reading, can use simple phonic facts advantageously as clues to aid him in the pronunciation of words familiar to him in speech."

As a result of wide experience, the following principles have been quite generally recognized as valid guides to teachers in the introduction and use of phonics.

1. Phonics should be introduced only after children have learned to note similarities and differences in the words which are known at sight.

2. Important phonic elements should be taught by directing attention to them in words that are already recognized at sight.

3. The elements should be taught as parts of word wholes and not in isolation. The vowels in particular should be taught in their natural setting of controllers (hat) and modifiers (hate).

4. Words should be sounded as wholes. This procedure emphasizes the blend of each part of the word with every other part.

5. Special periods should be provided at times in which pupils who need help will be required to make application of the various elements learned in the recognition of new words.

6. The amount of instruction provided will vary with the needs of pupils. Some require very little specific help and guidance; others require a great deal to insure accuracy and independence.

Space will not permit even a brief discussion of the value of a knowledge of the prin-

ciples of syllabication and accent and the use of the dictionary in recognizing words. The ultimate goal of teaching is to enable children to use various aids to word recognition quickly, accurately, and with wise discrimination.

#### SPELLING

One of the first questions confronting those who are interested in spelling at the primary level is that relating to the grade in which formal instruction should begin. Studies of time allotments in leading school systems indicate that opinion in the field is quite evenly divided as to whether the instruction should begin in the first or in the second grade. For two reasons the writer has consistently favored the latter plan: first, because it avoids the danger of interference with the teaching of reading, which has increasingly emphasized the analytic approach in recent years and has tended more and more to postpone phonics and the type of letter consciousness demanded in spelling; second, with the smaller vocabularies of modern scientific spelling courses, there seems to be time enough after the first grade to achieve reasonable objectives in spelling.

As soon, however, as the selection of a vocabulary in advance of instruction is suggested, there looms up before us one of the most vigorously debated educational problems of our time. The problem, in brief, is simply this: Shall we organize our curriculum in terms of subjects or in terms of projects? Time and experiment will tell. Meanwhile the extreme "progressive" advocates the second type of organization to the exclusion of the first. He believes that all the necessary learnings can be acquired incidentally in connection with projects. And he may even believe that the interests of children and not the demands of social life should determine the content of the course of study.

Happily, however, the number of such extremists is not legion. Most educational leaders today admit the great value of projects, especially at the primary level, and believe

also in the value of subjects. They believe that one judiciously supplements the other. They believe, with William James, that percepts are the hitching posts and linchpins of reality and provide the original stuff from which our concepts are derived. This fact the project method happily recognizes. But concepts, including innumerable difficult abstract and general ideas, constitute the very essence of subjects and of an education, hence they cannot be denied. Moreover, there are skills in great number requiring more than mere exposure to the social and perceptual matrix in which they are employed. How would one teach long division by the pure project procedure? When one abstracts subject-matter from the perceptual field and, in the interest of clarity of thought or skill of performance, studies it apart, whether the subject-matter be difficult words in spelling or difficult processes in arithmetic, one is resorting to subject instruction.

Obviously the writer is not yet prepared to classify the use of subjects among the cardinal sins in education. But sins may nevertheless be committed in their use. Above all, the material must be appropriately chosen and taught.

A scientific spelling vocabulary today consists of about 4000 words selected on the basis of frequency of usage from the written discourse of children and adults. We shall not stop to discuss the many problems of vocabulary selection.<sup>7</sup> It will be enough, perhaps, to remark that, as a result of thirty or forty important studies, we seem to know fairly accurately the words that children most need now and will most need later to express their thought in writing. What we seem most to lack at the present time is satisfactory methods of instruction. For the most part the spellers have been barren books and the methods of instruction formal and mechanical.

<sup>7</sup> For a sane discussion of these and other problems relating to spelling instruction, see *The Psychology and Teaching of Spelling*. By Thomas G. Foran. Washington, D.C.: Catholic Education Press, 1934.



Recently the trend has been away from such exclusive emphasis on the dry bones of our subject and in the direction of what has been called a "content" speller. More attention is now being given to the use of words in meaningful context, to stories and letters containing the words, to pictures illustrative of their meaning, and to tests of the contextual type. Moreover, contributing to the attractiveness<sup>8</sup> of study procedure as well as to its effectiveness are a great variety of analytical exercises and word games designed to secure concentrated visual attention on the details of words. This new type of course can be very conveniently and effectively conducted by means of a text of the work-book type, a book containing not only word lists, pictures, and stories, but also space for preparing exercises, taking tests, and handling individual difficulties.<sup>9</sup>

The pretest method is being discarded in the primary grades because experiments do not attest its superiority. In grades two and three this method, otherwise known as the test-study method, has been found inferior to the older study-test procedure. This finding is not altogether surprising when one reflects that the test-study method presupposes ability on the part of pupils to do effective independent study. Teachers are advised, therefore, to use the group rather than the individual method of study in grades two and three, to lead the study rather than to leave

it to the best and worst devices of the pupils.

A final word about the handling of spelling errors and reviews. In the past most reviews have been general in nature and unscientifically organized. If the idea of a general review is adopted, the idea that a set of words can be selected that will satisfactorily represent the special "problems" of all the pupils in a group, it is better to distribute these words through later lessons with a frequency in proportion to their difficulty, and at intervals of increasing length, than to assemble them once a month. There is obviously an opportunity here for a finer adjustment to individual differences. The writer, in collaboration with Mr. Ellis C. Seale,<sup>10</sup> has devised a plan of individual review in accordance with which each pupil, in a special space called his "Word Garden," writes any word misspelled in the terminal test of a weekly unit. This word remains in the garden until, by using methods in which he is directed, the pupil demonstrates that he has achieved mastery, whereupon he is permitted to pluck the cultivated product and place it in a "Word Basket" which becomes a permanent and convenient receptacle for his individual troublemakers and a record of their mastery.

The writer was recently puzzled to hear that a teaching device may sometimes become altogether too fascinating. A teacher trying the "Word Garden" procedure reported that pupils sometimes purposely misspelled words on the Friday test, or so it seemed, in order that they might have the fun of getting into the garden!

<sup>8</sup> "The Value of Various Games and Activities in Teaching Spelling." By A. I. Gates and F. B. Graham. *Journal of Educational Research*, September, 1934, 28: 1-9.

<sup>9</sup> See, as an illustration, *My Work Book*: Grade Two, p. 92; Grade Three, p. 92; Grade Four, p. 94; Grade Five, p. 94; Grade Six, p. 94; Grade Seven, p. 94; Grade Eight, p. 94. By F. S. Breed and E. C. Seale. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan, 1934.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*

The educated man is a man with certain subtle spiritual qualities which make him calm in adversity, happy when alone, just in his dealings, rational and sane in all the affairs of life.

—RAMSAY MACDONALD

# Language Artists in the Primary Grades

HUGHES MEARNS

THE CHILD as artist has arrived in America and is worthy of our serious consideration. In the language arts, particularly in poetry, we have been used to encountering him, but fifteen years ago he did not exist even in this area.

Hilda Conkling in her *Poems by a Little Girl* was perhaps the forerunner in 1920 of what was soon to be a multitude of language artists. Her irregular cadences, the colorful pictures out of childhood, the compact line, the simple truths, the wisdom even—these had all the freshness of individual art as different from something taught as lessons.

The Lincoln School anthology, published first as a pamphlet in 1923, is seen now as only the opening chorus of a national outpouring. The child as language artist has become accepted everywhere nowadays as inevitable and natural.

One must see this introduction of creative art into young life as a whole and not as something that belongs to language alone. Art is communication, a communication of something uniquely personal; one does not find it isolated in a school subject. Let us take a brief glance at the child artist in line and color.

The child as graphic artist is also among us and while the language artist appeared first and has well nigh claimed all the attention, the child painter is not far behind and will be heard from continuously from now on.

The forerunner in directing the work of child painters was the Viennese Cizek. Fifteen years ago we began to hear of the seemingly untaught beauty of the work of the child students in his informal classes. Educa-

*Teachers of young children must provide opportunities for the child to express himself before the crust of custom and conventional expression starve and suffocate the artist in him says Hughes Mearns, chairman, department of creative education, New York University.*

tors made journeys to Vienna to see and to admire and they carried back enthusiastic reports. The demand to know more about these child artists brought us first reproductions in color and then a travelling exhibition of the originals.

The paintings of the Cizek children, we noted, have much of the naïve simplicity and the truthful innocence of Hilda Conkling's early verses.

America did not learn about child painting first from Cizek, however, for we were already at work in that line ourselves. In many places among the progressive group, school children of the primary grades were splashing huge canvases—large rectangles of rough pulp paper really—with soft chalks and tempera paints.

No one knows who began this work of self-expression in language and in the graphic arts; perhaps nobody began it. It was most likely an outpouring that came along naturally in that experimentation with new schoolroom materials which was so characteristic of the break by the "activity school" from traditional inactive schoolroom practices, because the phenomena appeared all over the world at about the same time.

These experimenters, one remembers, had previously started up schools of their own because they felt that more could be done with child education than the traditional

places had accomplished. They were quick to see the educational power that developed wherever free communication was permitted, whether in imaginative picture or in individual poem, story or personal dramatization, all of which, note, are forms of art communication.

They passed the word along to their fellow experimenters, for in those days the independent schools, scattered all over the world, were held together by a close association of common interests. Soon the new school, or progressive school as it came to be called, was marked obviously as different from the traditional school by the place it gave to a free expression in the arts. Child verse, so different in form and content from adult verse, appeared in class books, in mimeographed sheets, and often in enlarged script writing adorning the bulletin board; gay and often gaudy splashes of color covered all the available wall space, with friezes that reached the very ceiling.

Examples of this new sort of writing and reproduction in color by young painters are given us in the pamphlet, *Creative Effort*, published in 1925 by the Francis Parker School of Chicago. The pictures were much reduced, of course, and therefore not nearly so attractive as the originals, but even so the stamp of individual artistry was most effective. Gertrude Hartman brought out an issue of *Progressive Education* alive with color reprints of similar work of artist children in all parts of the country. That issue was immediately exhausted, the sign of a hungry demand, and a special edition bound in boards was not sufficient to keep up with the orders; eventually this material was enlarged into a book, *Creative Expression*, that treats all the child arts, including language expression.

The work of those experimenters of fifty years and more ago has brought fruit in a general adoption of their method and their theory by public schools everywhere. Free language expression in verse and story

is now a commonplace in the primary classes of up-to-date American schools. In preschool, kindergarten, and first and second grades the dictated "story," often put in verse form for ease of reading, is a daily business of the teacher. Later she reproduces it in large attractive hand print and binds a number of them together loosely for the class book. These class "story" books become the eagerly poured over treasure. They are read tirelessly and with never a fading of interest. They stimulate the springs of language desire and make the acquisition of reading and writing an almost effortless accomplishment.

Along with the making of class books and personal books go child painting and drawing. These two art activities—language art and graphic art—can no longer be separated. They play into each other and make an educational result of enormous significance. No longer may one differentiate the public school from the progressive private school by the total absence of colorful design and decorative imaginings. At almost any parent-teacher meeting in America nowadays, at the door, in the halls, from the walls of classrooms and overflowing into the assembly room, one is greeted with the sweep of line and color so characteristic of the child as artist.

Of course the language artists are on display too, but they are often overshadowed by the eye-compelling painters. However, if one looks closely along the walls or turns the pages of the handmade books on the tables, he is rewarded by seeing a type of child expression that the world has never so openly welcomed before:

Willows, willows!  
Yellow willows!  
First to come  
First to come  
First to come in the Spring  
Yellow, yellow, yellow, yellow,  
Yellow willows!

Beside this outburst may be a prosaic—

I made a boat,  
A big, big boat;



A BIG boat  
I made.

Self-portraiture is here—the sign always of the individualist and the artist; one is sure that a girl wrote "Willows" and that a boy made the BIG boat. Sensitiveness to color and motion is in the first one, a love of the world of lovely things; self-satisfaction and a native healthy egotism mark the second. In that environment one is sure that both of these fine human possessions will be permitted to develop so that they may be guided into their eventual excellencies.

The verses—so-called only because we lack a name for what is really superior prose—and the child paintings, too, are often crude, startling, fantastic, and, to the adult at times, unwittingly comic. Sometimes they are really beautiful, however, subduing even the stickler for old-fashioned "larnin'."

One must understand that intelligent schoolmen and schoolwomen have not given the language artist and the child painter their sincere attention simply because the product might be at times worth reading or worth looking at. Nor are they at all interested in increasing the number of professional writers and artists in the world. They are not particularly moved either by the knowledge that children are happy and contented with school life when given the chance to write and to draw. The prime concern of the educator is with a better education of young life. He is now becoming convinced that self-expression through painting, construction, and the language arts is one of the most effective instruments for developing superior personality.

The leaders in education are for the most part agreed that free expression, when professionally guided into right channels, has important and good outcomes in physical and mental growth, in health, and in receptivity to learning. For the child artist—which of course means simply any child who produces something of his own out of his life experience and interest—leaps easily ahead of the inactive scholars in even the three R's, as

judged by achievement test measures; and in the unmeasurable personal qualities of leadership, initiative and resourcefulness, he leaves his academic brothers and sisters far behind.

When a child composes in this free fashion in language or in color, his mind and his body, his whole spirit are coordinating as an energizing unit. The fire of a strong achievement-motive is vitalizing him, making every sense keen to observe and to appropriate. He adds to his store of power, something which defeat or half-hearted interest or coercion will rarely give him.

Since the making of the poem or the painting has taken momentary possession of his life as the chief desirable thing, all the good aids that the school brings to him will take on worth, whether it be reading or listening; research among books and magazines; measuring; attending to number; hand printing or script writing; examining color combinations; selecting and judging the values of words; punctuating; constructing in wood, metal, or cardboard; telling the story in dramatization; even morals and good manners.

The child story or poem is rarely an isolated thing. We see the final accomplishment in the hand-made book, in the mimeographed or printed school paper, admire or smile, and pass on; but that alone would not fit us to come to judgment on its educational worth.

The wiser teacher and administrator, whose interest in child growth far transcends any care for art or literature or even school subjects, the informed professional person is aware of changed personalities, changed marvelously for good, which have been brought about by means of all the allied and contributing accompaniments that went with the making of that frail bit of child writing.

Natural child writing is so different from adult writing that teachers and parents who are interested in understanding the educational power that comes by way of guided

and controlled self expression should accustom themselves to the child forms. One should read carefully through Hilda Conkling's two books, *Poems by a Little Girl* (Stokes) and *Shoes of the Wind* (Stokes). If one has been brought up too insistently in the Dickory Dock school—perfectly mechanistic tramping of syllables, banging rhymes at the end of the line—the gentle communications of Hilda cannot even be read fairly, much less enjoyed. Yet Hilda's language is pure child artistry.

Then one should take up such a collection as Mabel Mountsier's *Singing Youth* (Harper), or "Children's Own Literature" in *Child Craft* (Quarrie and Company), or the unschooled language in Claire T. Zyve's *Willingly to School* (Round Table Press), and by no means miss Dorothy Baruch's *Blimps and Such* (Harper). Other illustrations are scattered through the pamphlet publications of the Francis Parker School, Chicago, and the Bronxville Public Schools, Bronxville, New York. One should send for their lists.

Beyond this I should ask even the primary teacher and the mother of the small child to examine the output of those older children who have made free expression so completely a part of their lives that their work is a delight to all who care for the artistry of the

written word. Most important are the various volumes of *Saplings*, (Scholastic Publishing Company, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania) and that remarkable anthology, *Younger Poets* (Appleton-Century), edited by Nellie B. Sergeant.

In this way one may attune one's spirit to understand the small voice when it speaks to him, to love its irregular and surprising cadence, to see with small eyes and to hear with small ears an inward and an outward world long since gone, forgotten indeed, and now, unless care is exercised, mistakenly considered as alien and perhaps evil.

It is so easy to awaken the artist in the children of the primary grades and it is so important to do it at that time. The crust of custom and conventional expression soon enough stamps us in so hard a mould that the artist-person within each of us at the beginning is starved out and suffocated. If the graces of artistry are given an early chance there is good hope that they will grow stronger with the years, eventually win out, indeed, against all their enemies, so that in spite of the harsh demands of a practical world, they will continue to touch the individual with their magic, giving power and distinction, sensitiveness of eye and ear and spirit, ultimate appreciation of the best.

## A. C. E. Convention

NEW YORK CITY, APRIL 28-MAY 2, 1936

*A Study Conference for Teachers of Young Children*

The **Teacher and the Community** has been chosen as the theme of the 1936 convention. National and international leaders will discuss this theme from the standpoint of the teacher as a citizen, the teacher and community agencies, the teacher and the world community, the teacher and community leadership, and the teacher's relationship to professional organizations.

The February issue of **Childhood Education** will give information concerning the study classes and their leaders.

The Pennsylvania Hotel has been chosen as convention headquarters. Attractive rates are offered convention delegates. Make your reservations early.



# News... FROM HEADQUARTERS

By MARY E. LEEPER

## TEN NEW A.C.E. BRANCHES

We are happy to report nine new A.C.E. Branches and one reinstated Branch for 1935-1936. Six of these have already been listed; here are the other four:

Winter Park Association for Childhood Education, Winter Park, Florida.

Bloomington Association for Childhood Education, Bloomington, Indiana.

Longview Association for Childhood Education, Longview, Washington.

Snohomish County Primary Teachers Council, Everett, Washington.

## FIRST A.C.E. BULLETIN FOR 1936

Shortly after the time this magazine reaches you, contributing members of the A.C.E. and the president and secretary of every Branch will receive copies of the first bulletin for the year. The theme of the bulletin is Science for the Young Child. This bulletin, compiled by the Science Committee, contains discussions concerning science in the nursery school, the kindergarten, and the primary grades. The suggested lists of nature activities for the young child, science materials and equipment, and the bibliography will be particularly valuable to teachers.

Non-members may secure this bulletin from the Association for Childhood Education, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D.C. Price, thirty-five cents.

## SECRETARY GOES VISITING

Early in November the Executive Secretary of the A.C.E. visited sixteen A.C.E. Branches in New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Iowa, Missouri, and North Carolina. It was a joy to talk with the members about the splendid work being done in the various groups.

## PATTY HILL RETURNS FROM EUROPE

Friends of Professor Hill will be interested to know that she has recently returned from

Europe where she visited twelve different countries. Professor Hill writes: "I was so fortunate as to be in Stockholm on Children's Day when the whole country united in raising funds for the care of children in the summer months on an island devoted to this purpose.

"I also made it my business to see all the new dwellings for the working people. We are certainly lagging behind in America in this. I hope through the present Federal Administration we will be able to do something to bring us into good repute."

Professor Hill was recently honored by a tea at Teachers College. At this time a portrait of Miss Hill was presented to the College.

## NEW KINDERGARTENS, EAST AND WEST

Through Mrs. Mary Morgan Ayers of the A.C.E. it is learned that Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania, has opened another new kindergarten this year. This means that Wilkes-Barre now has eleven kindergartens in the public school system.

Through Helen Reynolds we hear that Seattle, Washington, has this year added eight new kindergartens to those already in the public school system of Seattle.

## STATE JOURNALS AND THE A.C.E.

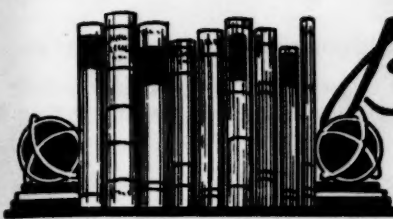
Can you find news of the A.C.E. in the education journal of *your* state. If you live in Florida the answer is "yes." Each month an entire page of the *Journal of the Florida Education Association* is filled with news of local, state, and national activities of the A.C.E.

## A.C.E. IN PHILADELPHIA

The Kindergarten Club of Philadelphia is now the Philadelphia Association for Childhood Education. This Association expects soon to rival in scope and accomplishments such organizations as the Central Council of Childhood Education of Chicago and the Council of Childhood Education of Greater Cleveland.

See page 181 for 1936 Convention Announcement





Editor, ALICE TEMPLE

# Book... REVIEWS

*Editor's Note:* The following references on reading have been selected and assembled from material contributed by Nila B. Smith, Ada R. Polkinghorne, William S. Gray, and Lula Wright. The references on language were contributed by Eleanor Troxell, Frances R. Dearborn, and Eleanor Johnson. Much more material was received than could be used. Selection of books was made on the basis of recency of publication and extent of agreement among the contributors. No attempt has been made to include supplementary reading material or work books.

## BOOKS ON READING FOR TEACHERS

*The Psychology and Teaching of Reading.* By Edward William Dolch. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1931.

A very valuable discussion of psychological processes involved in reading, particularly at the primary-grade level, together with specific suggestions concerning appropriate methods of teaching reading.

*Reading and Literature in the Elementary School.* By Paul McKee. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934.

Outlines a constructive program of reading instruction based on modern needs and discusses numerous problems concerned with the improvement of instruction in reading and literature in elementary schools.

*The Improvement of Reading.* By Arthur I. Gates. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927 (revised 1935).

A detailed and very helpful discussion of causes of failure or difficulty in reading, steps essential in the diagnosis of a reading case, and remedial procedures appropriate at various grade levels.

*Children Who Cannot Read.* By Marion Monroe. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932.

Describes the procedures adopted and the results secured in an intensive study of reading defects. Considers causative factors and appropriate remedial procedures.

*Reading Activities in the Primary Grades.* By Grace E. Storm and Nila B. Smith. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1930.

A source book of practical information and suggestions concerning methods of procedure in teaching reading "in such form that both teachers and supervisors will find it a helpful guide in the study of the problems of the reading class."

*The Teaching of Reading for Better Living.* By Mary E. Pennell and Alice M. Cusack. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935.

An excellent book on modern methods of teaching reading, thoroughly covering the ground. There are very generous specific helps for teaching beginning reading and reading for later age levels. An important thesis of the book, in contrast to what has been the practice in many school rooms, is, "The love for reading is the most important objective in reading to be accomplished in our elementary schools."

*American Reading Instruction.* By Nila B. Smith. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1934.

An illuminating and very interesting discussion of the successive developments in American reading instruction, together with a consideration of current needs and possible developments in the near future.

*A First Grade at Work.* By Lula Wright. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932.

Dwells upon the building up of a readiness for reading and also discusses the question of the maturity desirable for beginning reading.

## BOOKS FOR CHILDREN

The Unit Activity Reading Series. By Nila B. Smith. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1935.

An interesting new series, strong in social science and natural science content. Self-help pages in the primer—a new idea and very worth while.

Curriculum Foundation Series. By William S. Gray and others. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1933 to 1935.

An unusual and interesting series of books based on the different subjects of the primary curriculum. Includes a Social Science Primer; Health Stories, Books I, II, and III; Number Stories, Books I, II, and III; Science Stories, Books I and II; Art Stories, Books I, II, and III.

Curriculum Readers. By C. B. Baker, M. M. Reed, and E. D. Baker. Indianapolis, Indiana: Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1934.

Dramatic and live material based on social science activities well within the children's understanding. The authors have succeeded in their plan of launching the first reading in a rhythmic flowing style.

Community Life Series. Edited by L. Thomas Hopkins and Lorraine Miller Scherer. Jimmy, The Grocery Man. To Market We Go. Milk To Drink. By Jane Miller. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934-1935.

Valuable little books written simply and containing much information concerning grocery stores, markets, and dairy farms. Lively illustrations, excellent print.

New Silent Readers. By E. M. Gebres and A. L. Rowland. Chicago: John C. Winston Company, 1930-1932.

Children delight in the stories these books contain. They are exceptionally well written.

Real Life Readers. By Cora M. Martin and Patty S. Hill. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1930-1931

Fresh and rather unusual material on farms, animals, prairie dogs, crab fishing, sandstorms, Indians. Simply and well written.

Other well-known and widely-used series are:

The Child's Own Way Series. By Marjorie Hardy. Chicago: Wheeler Publishing Company, 1926.

Child-Story Readers. By Frank N. Freeman and others. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan, 1927.

The Children's Own Readers. By Mary E. Pennell and Alice M. Cusack. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1929.

The Work-Play Books. By Arthur I. Gates and others. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930-1931.

The Elson Basic Readers. By William H. Elson and others. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1930-1931.

## BOOKS ON LANGUAGE FOR TEACHERS

Language in the Elementary School. By Paul McKee. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934.

This book is characterized by many admirable features. The author is committed to the theory of social utility. What should be taught, where it should be taught, and how it should be taught are all to be determined on the basis of need and learning capacities of the children. Teachers and school people who have used this book with one accord acknowledge it the most useful and most reliable volume now available in elementary English.

Language and Thought of the Child. By Jean Piaget. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1926.

An outstanding presentation of the function of language.

Language and Literature in the Kindergarten and Primary Grades. By Eleanor Troxell. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1927.

Contains many practical suggestions for the teacher of little children.

The Language Development of the Preschool Child. By Dorothea A. McCarthy. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1930.

A clear, interesting, and convincing presentation of the subject.

## BOOKS FOR CHILDREN

Today's English. By M. R. Trabue and Bessie B. Goodrich. New York: Charles E. Merrill Company, 1935.

Based upon fundamentally sound principles from social philosophy, psychology, and biology, this new series is startling in its departure from the conventional language text. At last a language text has appeared which emphasizes thinking and content. If language is to be improved, ideas must come first. Language skills and technicalities are actually functional for they are introduced when needed in carrying out the content units. The units are life units (representing the interests of children everywhere) and are self-motivated since they are based on the self-activities of the organism such as play, manipulation, curiosity, exploration, et cetera. The units are designed to enlarge and enrich children's experiences, and at the same time to guide children in the use of language technicalities so that effective expression is inevitable. This series has made conscious provision through content and method to develop certain social attitudes which are desirable in social life today.

Growth in English. By Mabel E. Simpson and Mary A. Adams. New York: Newson and Company, 1935.

These books are organized around centers of interest drawn chiefly from the fields of social science and occasionally from natural science, literature, and health. The language activities developed around the centers of interest are directed toward specific goals of language skills and technicalities. The books are a compromise: a compromise because considerable attention is given to technicalities and to content supposedly of interest to pupils of widely varying schools.

Elementary English in Action. By R. W. Bardwell, Ethel Mabie, and J. C. Tressler. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1935.

Social communication or individual self-expression is stimulated through units taken from the fields of social science, natural science, and

general school life. The drill materials are assembled in the pupil's handbook where they are available when needed in carrying out any unit. Thus, the two aspects of English work—the occasions for expression and the mechanics of expression—are separated.

Language in Action. By A. L. Threlkeld, Frances M. Noar, and Dale Zeller. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1934.

The series comprises six sequentially graded books designed for use in Grades III, IV, V, VI, VII, and VIII. Exercises, tests, workbook material, and a guide-reference map are included in each volume.

Daily Life Language Series. By R. L. Lyman and others. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1934.

For grades two through eight. A new series which provides a cumulative program in the language arts. It bases language study on the present and future needs of the pupil and correlates it with the social studies.

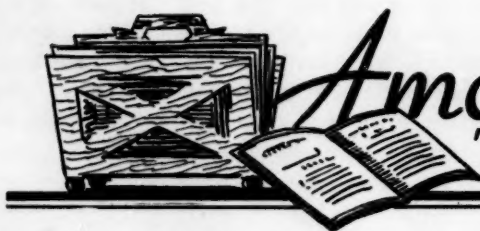
The New Living English. By Howard R. Driggs. New York: The University Publishing Company, 1935.

A series providing a tested plan of action for training pupils in the practical use of language. Provides a wealth of material, a definite teaching program, a climbing course in functional grammar, a proper balance between constructive and technical material, and strong pupil appeal.

American Language Series. By Hosis-Hooper. New York: Rand McNally and Company, 1934.

This is a new basal English series. The authors have provided for language experiences based upon the everyday life of pupils. Each lesson is treated under five headings: (1) Orientation, (2) Silent Reading, (3) Testing the Reading, (4) Discussion, (5) Activity. Definite grade goals are established. Oral and written exercises are included.





Editor, ELLA RUTH BOYCE

## Among... THE MAGAZINES

*The New Era in Home and School* devotes its November issue to one aspect of the topic which is discussed in the present issue of **Childhood Education**. Margaret Lee writes on "Creative Self-Expression through Words," and Helen D. Stout on "Individuality Expressed in Writing."

Miss Lee is a tutor and lecturer in English at Oxford and Principal of the Wynchwood School. Although we are living in a period of great activity and expansion in some of the arts—notably drawing, painting, design, the dance, and music—she feels that the art of literature has declined. She speaks of the tremendous output of printed material on the one hand and the meagerness of children's vocabularies on the other. They are "less sensitive auditorially than visually" and there is a "comparative lack of the art of self-expression in words"—one word is made to serve many purposes. Hence she fears that children will be handicapped when they try to write or speak. She coins a lovely phrase for this, "the artist's eternal problem—how shall spirit attain to self-identification with form?"

Miss Lee tells of the triviality which she finds in many school magazines as a proof of her thesis, and lists four reasons for her assumption that literary self-expression is declining. The first is the natural swing away from the moral and intellectual scheme of education of the past, largely centered in literature, "towards more newly-revived modes of expression. Other media than words excite our interest and invite us to experiment." Second, the new modes of expression are attractive and easy. They seem to take much less concentration and effort than does the writing of good English. Third, the modern child dislikes what she calls "spade work" and what he feels is the drudgery of the study of technique. She suggests that possibly "the ceremonial aspect of art is too much neglected at present." Fourth, "The child of today is assaulted by many forms of bad English." She lists

as enemies, "the popular school story, the newspaper caption, the crook talkie, and at least one-half of the novels."

In the face of all these difficulties, she asks, "Why, then, try?" Language is the one medium which every fully endowed human being is sure to use. So marvelous a medium is it that "even for those who gain the mastery of it, language always remains an imperfect instrument through which only a little of the spirit can be given forth," so important is its unique place that she feels anything which will make its attainment possible should be done: from pot-hooks to grammatical rules, and from the study of the dictionary to an appreciation of Hamlet's soliloquies or the chorus in Hellas. But if attained, "This art above all the rest will be to them (children) a weapon of self-preservation, a means of intelligent intercourse, and the strongest of the links in the chain of human brotherhood."

Miss Stout's article discusses practical methods which have been found helpful in trying to free children so that their work may be creative. Writing personal experiences, then permitting the child to decide whether he will read his to the group or not, is one way by which gains are shown. The social studies call on imagination, and the audience situation is useful. Poetry clubs, children's magazines and papers, the use of the general school auditorium for audiences—all have their places. In children's plays and puppet shows there are also many opportunities. Anything to be successful must have back of it an understanding teacher with taste. Miss Stout would not divorce creative writing from other types of writing. She asks, "Is it not true that all creative work is the result of an attitude of mind and a freedom and fearlessness in the approach to life?"

*Parents' Magazine* for November has a helpful article, "Discovering Your Child's Taste in

Books," by Pauline G. Vorhaus. While written primarily for parents it is equally valuable for any one having to do with children's reading interests. Miss Vorhaus, an adviser in children's reading, uses many illustrations from her contacts with children to prove her points. She believes that all children are potential readers because all children like stories and, if they once master the technique of reading, they find that reading is only another method of hearing a story.

She finds two reasons for non-readers: first, failure to master these techniques and second, lack of access to books in sufficient numbers which are, to them, good stories. The classification of books into age levels has been helpful to many children but it may be definitely harmful if adhered to too rigidly. Children have their individual tastes and they should be recognized. They must be supplied with books that correspond to their interests, actual or potential.

The second requirement which she makes is that the book must be on the child's technical reading level. Many things may block the child's mastery of reading: left-eyedness, short eye-span, reading words rather than sense, lack of practice from being read to or from absorption in other interests. Coupled with maturity of thought and interest this presents a real problem which writers for children are now solving.

The author's third requirement is that the child's books likewise shall be on his emotional and intellectual level. Her conclusion is somewhat surprising for she says that while all parents wish their children to be readers, many do not recognize the necessity for supplying varied material and for choosing it carefully in the light of the child's individual needs. She finds that many parents begrudge the money spent for books for their children on the basis that once read they are of no more value. Aside from the fact that this is not true of well-loved books, she points out that the value received lies in the practice the child had with the book, and that it may be passed on to another child or kept as a precious possession. If it has promoted the child's interest in reading it has been worthwhile.

*The Elementary School Journal* for November has an article by G. A. Yoakam of the University of Pittsburgh on "The Improvement of

Reading and Study Habits." Dr. Yoakam comments on the differences that lie in reading of the work or study type, as opposed to the recreational type, and says that recognition of this fact is shown in new materials which are being produced. He believes, however, that . . . "there is undoubtedly a tendency to confront children at any given age with types of concepts and with language patterns that are too difficult for them." In spite of some progress research has made, he feels that the problems of special types of vocabularies and patterns of thought have hardly been touched as yet. "One of the most difficult problems in attempting to develop work habits in reading is the great gulf between what the authors of books think children ought to learn and what children themselves are interested in."

He recognizes that the improvement of reading and study habits is a school problem and lists the school's three functions in this field: "1. to train the future citizen in those social attitudes, informations, habits, and skills which will make him a good citizen; 2. to make as many persons as possible into thoughtful students of life so that there may be numbers of citizens who read thoughtfully, look between the lines, and challenge sharply what they read; and 3. to turn out a few scholars or creative workers in the discovery of new knowledge."

He further suggests that there is a minimum amount of reading ability which every pupil should acquire. One is rather surprised to find how low is his estimate. For the girl he suggests that she needs to be able "to read recipes, follow patterns, and do other types of mechanical reading requiring accuracy of understanding." For the boys he suggests a similar amount. He believes that third-grade reading ability is adequate for persons who work with their hands and that we should accept that and expect them to "get their entertainment in other ways than in solitary silent reading."

Dr. Yoakam lists four basic problems in teaching children how to study, all of them calling for investigations and analyses. He next suggests some practical measures for developing study habits, closing thus, ". . . reading and study must become vital experiences in the lives of children. . . unless pupils form the habit of reading and studying, they have missed a large part of the purpose of education."



# Research... ABSTRACTS

Editor, BETH WELLMAN

Negro Intelligence and Selective Migration. By Otto Klineberg. New York: Columbia University Press, 1935. Pp. xii+66.

For a number of years it has been known that the Northern Negro is superior in general intelligence to the Southern Negro. One explanation that has been advanced for this is that the Negroes who migrated were the more aggressive ones who showed more initiative and who were among the more intelligent. Klineberg has subjected this explanation to experimental proof by studying Negro children whose parents migrated North. He found that the difference between the Northern and Southern Negro child is the result of superior environment rather than a matter of selective migration.

The school marks of nearly five hundred children who went North were studied. While they were still in the South (Birmingham and Nashville) the marks obtained were slightly below those of all Negro children in these southern cities. Further, recent arrivals in the North showed no superiority in intelligence over children of the same age and sex who remained in the South.

There was a decided increase in intelligence with length of residence in the North. Two studies were made of twelve-year-old boys using the National Intelligence Test, there being 517 and 561 subjects respectively. A third study was made of 619 twelve-year-old girls. The mean IQ of the combined groups according to length of residence was as follows:

Residence Years	Mean IQ
1-2	72
3-4	76
5-6	84
7-8	90
9 and over	94

Northern born twelve-year-old Negroes had a mean IQ of 92 (1,017 subjects).

Children who came from country sections of the South were lower at first than those who

came from urban sections, but with seven to eight years of residence the difference had disappeared.

Similar results were obtained from individual intelligence examinations on the Stanford-Binet of 215 Southern born ten-year-old children. The following means were obtained:

Residence Years	Mean IQ
Less than 1	81
1-2	84
2-3	85
3-4	89
More than 4	87

Ninety-nine New York born children had a mean IQ of 87.

The author's conclusion is that there was no evidence whatever in favor of selective migration. "There is, on the other hand, very definite evidence that an improved environment, whether it be the southern city as contrasted with the neighboring rural districts, or the northern city as contrasted with the South as a whole, raises the test scores considerably; this rise in "intelligence" is roughly proportionate to length of residence in the more favorable environment. Even under these better environmental conditions Negro children do not on the average quite reach the White norms. Since the environment of the New York Negro child is by no means the same as that of the White, except perhaps as far as schooling is concerned, this does not prove that the Negro is incapable of reaching the White level." (p. 59)

Measurement of Musical Talent: The Eastman Experiment. By Hazel Martha Stanton. University of Iowa Studies: Studies in the Psychology of Music, 1935, 2, New Series No. 291. Pp. 140.

In this volume are brought together a number of studies carried on by the author at the Eastman School of Music in Rochester, New York. The extensiveness of the author's experience can be judged by her statement that she has tested



more than 10,000 persons over a period of fourteen years, persons varying in age from nine years to sixty-six years and in education from the third grade on, and representing all levels of mentality, emotional stability, cooperation and occupation.

All of the studies are concerned with the value of the Seashore Measures of Musical Talent in prognosis of musical achievement. The Seashore measures represent the child's ability in pitch, intensity, time, consonance, tonal memory and rhythm. These abilities are considered as fundamental underlying capacities. It is the main thesis of the volume that persons who are low in capacities by these measures are not likely to achieve success in music and that persons ranked high by the measures tend to achieve in proportion to their greater endowment. For students to make progress in a broad program of music education, their fundamental musical capacities need to be average or above. Those with capacities below average rarely accomplish in any musical outlet other than voice and preliminary work on an instrument. In the author's experience voice pupils usually rank lower in musical capacities than most violin pupils and lower than the majority of piano pupils.

It was found that three years of musical education had little effect on children's scores on the Seashore measures. There was increase in scores with age, due, the author believes, to mental maturation in terms primarily of cognitive factors. But there seemed to be no increase that could be attributed to musical education as such. The author does not state how much effort, if any, was made during the musical education to improve the fundamental capacities.<sup>1</sup>

An interesting part of the investigation was the change brought about in teachers' ratings of talent. The ratings were made in terms of a letter scale, A, B, C+, C—, D and E. The first ratings showed great variations between teachers and great discrepancies between the percentages of children receiving the three higher letters on teacher ratings as compared with the measures. The greatest discrepancy was for one teacher who rated only about ten percent of her pupils

in the upper ranges of talent, while the measures showed that about ninety percent of them were in the upper ranges. The teachers were furnished with information showing these discrepancies. On re-ratings three years later, the teachers' estimates approximated much more closely the ratings on the Seashore measures.

*The Development of Motor Abilities During the First Three Years. By Nancy Bayley. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development No. 1. Washington, D.C.: Society for Research in Child Development, National Research Council, 1935. Pp. 26.*

This first monograph published by the Society for Research in Child Development presents the results of seriatum measurements of motor abilities of the same individuals measured every month during the first fifteen months of life and every three months thereafter through thirty-six months of age. The original group numbered 61 children. The number measured at any one month ranged from 44 to 61. The California Infant Scale of Motor Development was used. This scale is presented in full in the appendix to the monograph.

Although there were quite high relationships between the scores on adjacent age groups, the relationship between scores six months or more apart was quite low. Thus if a child was superior at one age, it was impossible to tell whether he would still be superior six months later.

Motor abilities and mental abilities were quite divergent after fifteen months of age. This finding is consistent with the lack of relationship between motor and mental abilities usually found for school age children and adults. Bayley says: "After this age [15 months] the tests diverge in their nature, with both groups of tests probably changing to include behavior patterns more similar to adult 'mental' and 'motor' abilities."

Age of walking alone was positively related to both mental and motor scores. "Although the accuracy of prediction between scores which correlate .63 is very low, and one would hesitate to carry such prediction far, we may say that on the basis of our results, the age of first walking is as closely related to three-year-old motor, or even mental ability, as is the whole battery of tests given at one year. We cannot, of course, tell whether this relationship will persist into later years."

<sup>1</sup> The work of other investigators has indicated that even the so-called fundamental capacities can be improved when appropriate training is undertaken. See, *An Experiment in Individual Training of Pitch-deficient Children*, by Manuel Wolner and W. H. Pyle in *J. Educ. Psychol.* 1933, 24: 602-608. Also, *A New Approach to Music For Young Children*, by Irene Hissem in *Child Develop.*, 1933, 4: 308-317.

## ***Adjusting the Primary Curriculum to the Child's Needs . . .***

# **THE CURRICULUM FOUNDATION SERIES**

**W. S. GRAY, Reading Director**

These books give enriched and balanced reading experience, lead into profitable and interesting activities, and teach reading, not as a school exercise, but as *a learning tool*. Their small combined vocabulary makes this the easiest learning program available.

ELSON GRAY BASIC READERS  
PETER'S FAMILY (social studies primer)  
NUMBER STORIES, Books I, II, III

HEALTH STORIES, Books I, II, III  
ART STORIES, Books I, II, III  
SCIENCE STORIES, Books I and II

*Free sample units from most books are available.*

## **SCOTT, FORESMAN AND COMPANY**

**Chicago**

**Atlanta**

**Dallas**

**New York**

## **LEADERSHIP IN INSTRUCTION**

**REPORT OF A COMMITTEE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF  
SUPERVISORS AND DIRECTORS OF INSTRUCTION**

**Dr. PAUL T. RANKIN, *Chairman***

**Dr. WILLIAM G. CARR, *Secretary***

This is a charter for supervision, composed of a set of cardinal principles. It provides the foundation for a sound working policy in respect to the guidance and coöperative activities of teachers.

Superintendents, general supervisors, principals, and specialists will all find this report valuable.

*32 pages*

*Single copy, 25 cents*

Order from National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., or from Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 525 West 120th Street, New York City.

*In writing to advertisers, please mention CHILDHOOD EDUCATION—it helps*

# CHILDHOOD EDUCATION



FEBRUARY 1911

- Our Greatest Task . . . . .  
Childhood Education Abroad . . . . .  
Vernacular Speaking Clubs for Children . . . . .  
Modern Education and Reading Schools . . . . .  
Departures in Kindergarten Design and Equipment . . . . .

JOURNAL OF THE  
ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

VOLUME XII • NUMBER 2



# ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

## EXECUTIVE BOARD

WILLIAM H. KENNEDY, *President*  
*Board of Education*  
 Seattle, Washington

OLGA ANASTAS, *Vice-President*  
*Reverend, Northwestern*  
 University of Chicago  
 Chicago, Illinois

WILLIAM J. BARK, *Secretary-Treasurer*  
 New College, Columbia University  
 New York, New York

MARY HELEN BRYANT, *Vice-President*  
*Representing Nursery Schools*  
 Cornell University  
 Ithaca, New York

MARYJOHN BERRY, *Vice-President*  
*Representing Nursery Schools*  
 Connecticut State School  
 Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

MARY E. LANGE, *Executive Secretary*  
 1211 Madison Street, N.W.  
 Washington, D.C.

## BOARD OF EDITORS

DOROTHY A. WILLY, *Chairman*

10730 South Saylor Avenue, Chicago, Illinois

## CONSTRUCTIVE EDITORS

ROSE H. MARCUSSEN  
*Staff Director*  
 Wisconsin Public Schools  
 Advisor, NEA Nursery Schools  
 Chicago, Illinois

FRANK H. FENNELL  
*Professor of Educational Psychology*  
 University of Chicago  
 Chicago, Illinois

GEORGE D. BENTLEY  
*Director, Iowa Child*  
 Welfare Research Station  
 State University of Iowa  
 Iowa City, Iowa

IRVING DEAN BAKER  
*President, National College of*  
*Education*  
 Evanston, Illinois

MARGARET COPE FRAMER  
*Director of Publications*  
 New York, New York

IRVING WARRNER  
*Supervisor of Primary Grades*  
 St. Louis, Missouri

## REVIEW EDITORS

*Magazines*  
 GALE RUTH BUTLER  
*Director of Kindergarten*  
 Public Schools  
 Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

*Research Abstracts*  
 RUTH L. WELLMAN  
*Assistant Associate Professor*  
 State University of Iowa  
 Iowa City, Iowa

*Books*  
 ALICE TEMPLE  
*Associate Professor, Supervisor of*  
*University Primary Education*  
 University of Chicago  
 Chicago, Illinois

## CONTRIBUTING EDITORS

JOHN E. ARTHURSON  
*Director, Institute of Child Welfare*  
 University of Minnesota  
 Minneapolis, Minnesota

PATTY BERRY HALL  
*Professor, Institute of Education*  
 Teachers College  
 New York, New York

WILLIAM CHASE  
*Professor of Education*  
 University of Michigan  
 Ann Arbor, Michigan

MAY HALL ARTHURSON  
*Associate Professor of Education*  
 Western Reserve University  
 Cleveland, Ohio

JOHN A. HENNING  
*Lecturer in Education*  
 University of California  
 Berkeley, California

MARY E. FRANKLIN  
*Director of Forest Education*  
 State Department of Education  
 Albany, New York

ROY LORNE BERRY  
*Superintendent in Teacher Training*  
 State Teachers College  
 Milwaukee, Wisconsin

ROBERT HORN  
*Professor of Education*  
 State University of Iowa  
 Iowa City, Iowa

ROSE HENNING  
*Assistant Professor of English*  
 Wayne University  
 Detroit, Michigan

JOHN W. CHASE  
*Professor of Education*  
 Duke University  
 Durham, North Carolina

ELMER M. JOHNSON  
*American Education Press*  
 Columbus, Ohio

JOHN I. ROBERTSON  
*Professor of Home Economics*  
 University of Washington  
 Seattle, Washington

LUCY GALT  
*Professor of Education*  
 George Peabody College  
 Nashville, Tennessee

ELMA JOHNSON  
*Director of Early Childhood*  
 Education  
 Teachers College, Temple University  
 Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

MARY STANLEY  
*Professor of Education*  
 University of Cincinnati  
 Cincinnati, Ohio

JOHN LEO SHANNON  
*Associate Professor of*  
*Elementary Education*  
 Yale University  
 New Haven, Connecticut

ALICE V. KRAMER  
*Director of Elementary Education*  
 Hartford, Connecticut

DONALD A. TRICE  
*Director, Massachusetts State Child*  
 Welfare Department

ARNOOLD GREENE  
*Director, Child of Child*  
 Development  
 Yale University  
 New Haven, Connecticut

WILLIAM H. KENNEDY  
*Professor of Education*  
 Teachers College  
 New York, New York

ELMER LEO VERNER  
*Professor, Marshall School*  
 Seattle, Washington

FRANCIS GREENE  
*Kindergarten-Supervisory Supervisor*  
 Mendocino County  
 Fort Ross, California

LOIS HENNING MARY  
*Director, Child Development*  
 Institute  
 Teachers College  
 New York, New York

CHARLES J. WARRNER  
*Director of Washington*  
 Washington, D.C.

JULIA LUTHERUS HARRIS  
*Supervising Principal, Public Schools*  
 Washington, D.C.

ANNIE E. MILLER  
*Professor, Institute of Education*  
 Teachers College  
 New York, New York

LUCY WARRNER  
*Teacher, Washington, Kindergarten*  
 Henry Jackson School  
 Boston, Massachusetts